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PART 1 : BY AILEEN GARLAND

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PART I

BY AILEEN GARLAND

Illustrated by
ROBERT BANKS AND JOSEPH ROSENTHAL

BASED ON
A First Book of Canadian History
BY W. STEWART WALLACE

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY
OF CANADA LIMITED

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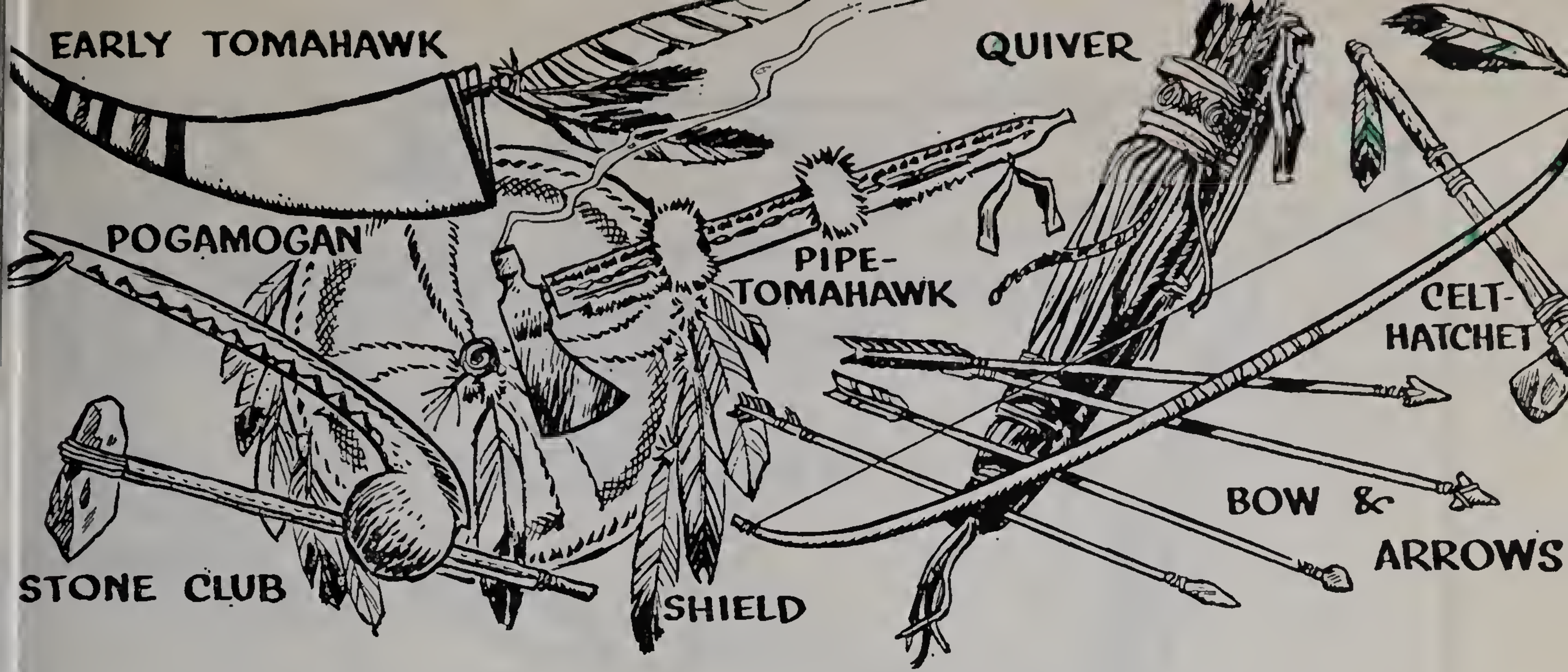
BANKS



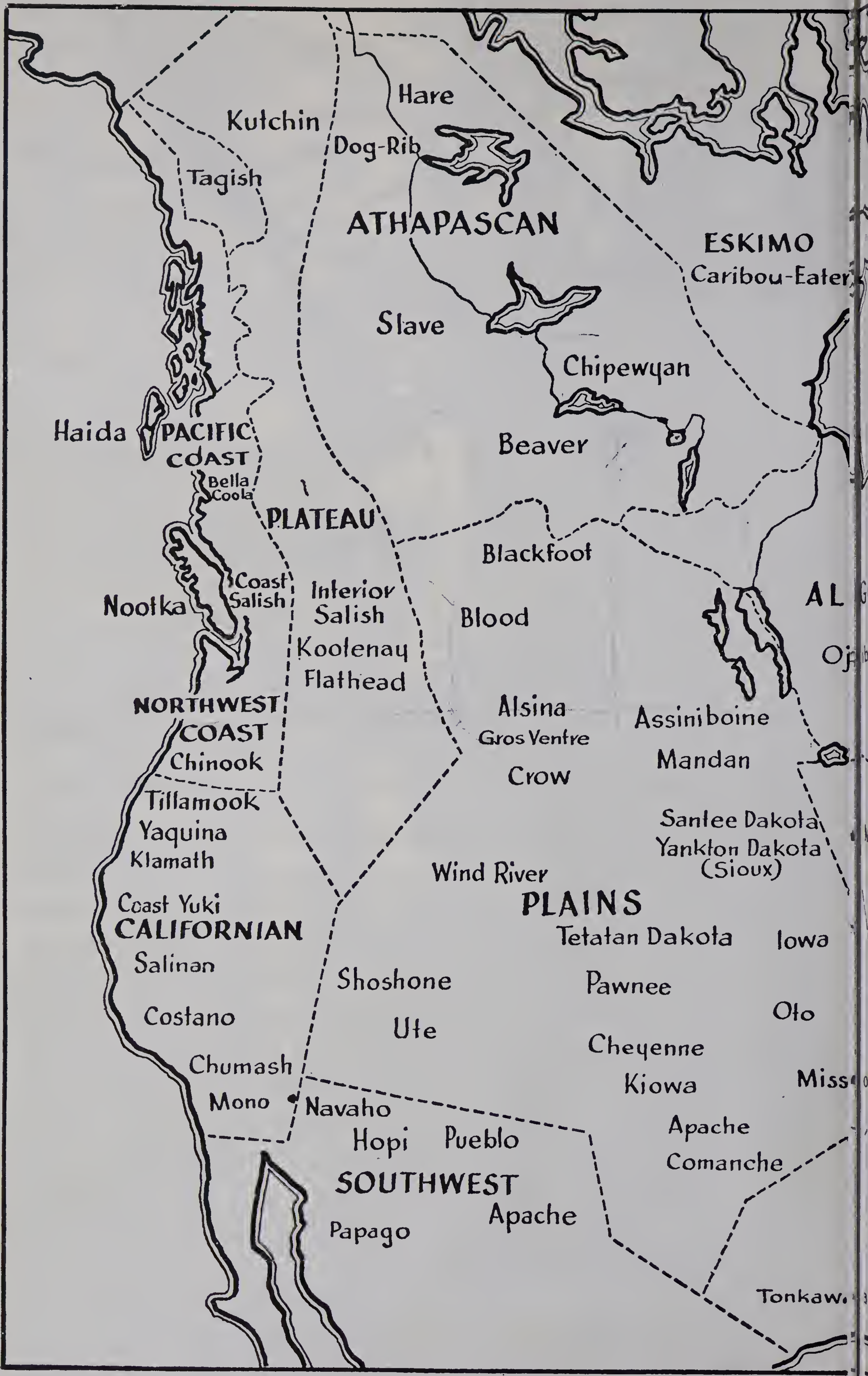
I. *The First Visitors to America*

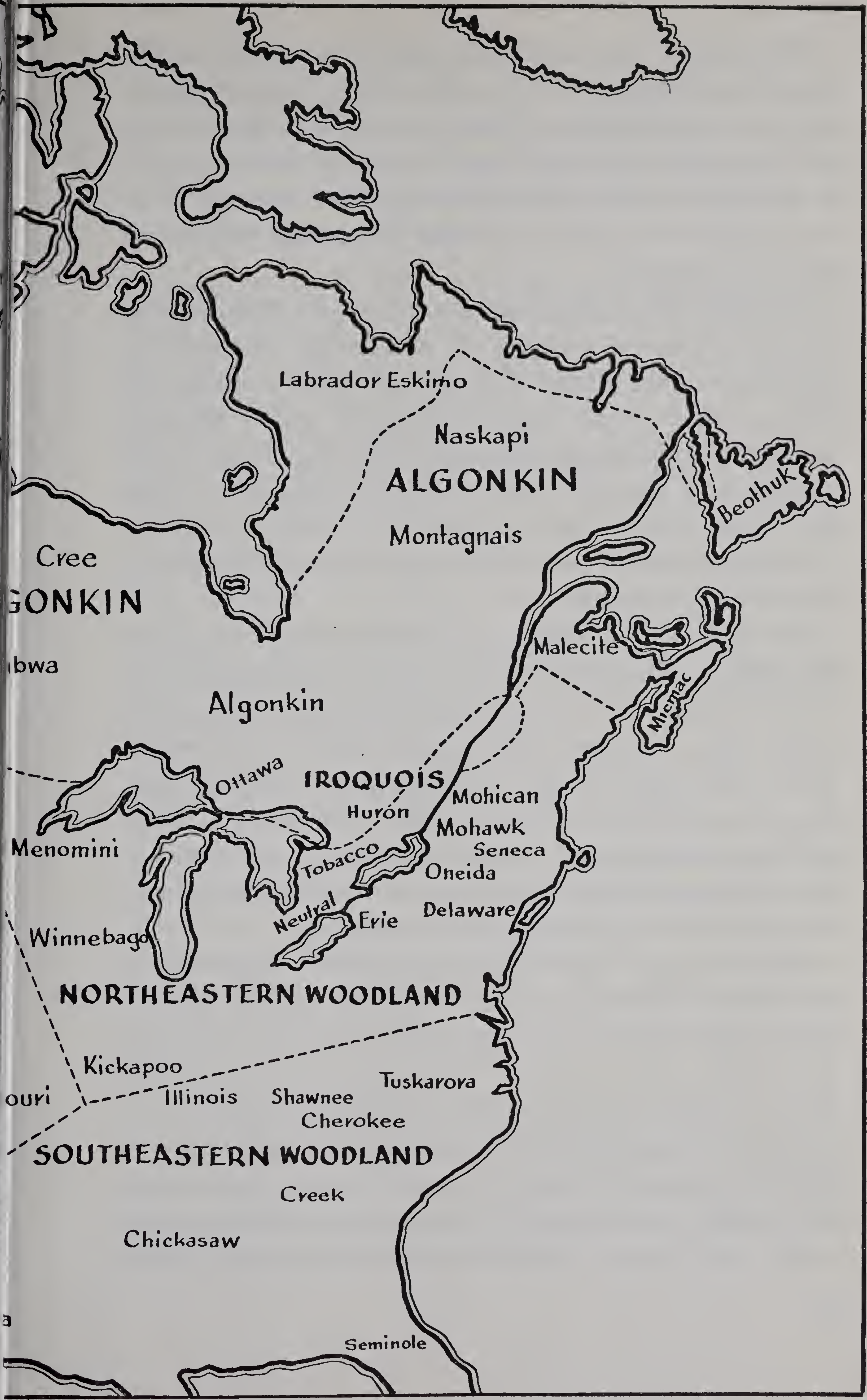
1. The Indians and the Eskimos

"The memory of the Red Man,
How can it pass away,
While his names of music linger
On each mount and stream and bay?"
RICHARD HUNTINGTON: *The Indian Names of Acadia*

THE INDIANS WERE HERE LONG BEFORE THE WHITE MAN CAME

No one knows for certain who the first visitors to Canada were, or where they came from, or why they came. We do know that when the white men landed on the eastern coast of America they found tribes of copper-skinned people who had been on this continent for a very long time. When Christopher Columbus landed in San Salvador in 1492, thinking he had reached the East Indies, he called the natives Indians. Although Columbus did not live to realize his mistake, it was not many years before other explorers knew that America was not India but a new continent. Nevertheless, the name which Columbus gave to the inhabitants of the new land persisted, and to this day they are called Indians.


Hare
Kutchin
Dog-Rib
Tagish
ATHAPASCAN
ESKIMO
Caribou-Eater
Slave
Chipewyan
Haida
PACIFIC COAST
Beaver
Bella Coola
PLATEAU
Blackfoot
Coast Salish
Nootka
Interior Salish
Koolenay
Flathead
Blood
AL
Oj
NORTHWEST COAST
Chinook
Alsina
Gros Ventre
Assiniboine
Mandan
Crow
Tillamook
Yaquina
Klamath
Santee Dakota
Yankton Dakota (Sioux)
Wind River
Coast Yuki
PLAINS
CALIFORNIAN
Tetatan Dakota
Iowa
Salinan
Shoshone
Pawnee
Ute
Oto
Costano
Cheyenne
Chumash
Kiowa
Miss
Mono
Navaho
Hopi
Pueblo
Apache
Comanche
SOUTHWEST
Apache
Papago
Tonkaw


Labrador Eskimo
Naskapi
ALGONKIN
Montagnais
Beothuk
Cree
GONKIN
ibwa
Algonkin
Malecite
Micmac
Ottawa
IROQUOIS
Huron
Mohican
Mohawk
Seneca
Oneida
Menomini
Tobacco
Neutral
Erie
Delaware
Winnebago
NORTHEASTERN WOODLAND
Kickapoo
Tuskarora
ouri
Illinois
Shawnee
Cherokee
SOUTHEASTERN WOODLAND
Creek
Chickasaw
Seminole

We believe that long, long ago the ancestors of the Indian tribes came from Asia across Bering Strait to Alaska. Perhaps some fisherman, driven out to sea by storms, first saw the coast of this new land. It may be that the tribes on the coast of Asia had to flee from their enemies. It is even possible that there was once an isthmus connecting the two continents.

Gradually the newcomers moved up the Yukon River and across into the valley of the Mackenzie. In time they spread across the whole of North and South America. As they travelled farther south they found milder climates, more wild fruit, better fishing and hunting. They had to use whatever they were able to find in the district in which they lived, or move on to a new area. If they could not provide themselves with the weapons and the food they needed, they starved.

It is not easy to learn much about the early history of the Indians. They have left no written records except for a few examples of picture writing on rocks or in caves. Every tribe, however, had legends which were handed down from father to son. Historians are studying these legends and trying to interpret them. Scholars are studying burial mounds and village sites which have been uncovered in order to learn more about the life and customs of these earliest inhabitants of our country.

Museums are collecting and preserving things which the Indians made and used. There we can see Indian tomahawks, bows, arrowheads, clubs, and spears. We can see deerskin shirts, made by the squaws, decorated with shells or dyed porcupine quills, sometimes decorated with scalp locks taken from the heads of enemies slain in battle. Models of teepees, either of buffalo skins such as the Plains Indians used or of birch-bark such as the Algonquins made, show us how the Indians made their homes. Clay pots, birch-bark baskets, wooden ladles, bone awls for punching holes in the skins, and bone needles show us what the women used in their housekeeping.

Many of the early explorers wrote descriptions of the Indians. Here is what Cartier wrote about the Indians he met on the Gaspé peninsula:

> "They can with truth be called savages, as there are no people poorer than these in the world. I believe they do not possess anything to the value of five pennies, apart from their canoes and nets. Their whole clothing consists of a small skin, with which they cover their loins . . . They have their heads completely shaven, except for a lock of hair on the top of the head, which they allow to grow as long as a horse's tail; they tie it to their heads with small leather cords. Their dwellings are their canoes. They turn these upside down and lie under them on the bare ground. They eat their meat almost raw, merely warming it over coals. The same with fish . . . They showed us by signs how they prepare the foods they have and how these grow. They will not eat anything that is salted. They are great thieves and will steal all they can."

This was a very poor and backward tribe. Many of the Indians had a much higher standard of living.

Years later, Champlain painted a very different picture of the Indians he met at the mouth of the Saguenay. He noted their cheerfulness and laughter, their strong well-proportioned bodies, their amazing endurance, and especially their intelligence. He admired their birch-bark canoes which he realized were very well suited to their needs.

"I think," he declared, "that if anyone would show them how to live and teach them to till the ground, and other matters, they would learn very well. I assure you that plenty of them have good judgment, and answer very properly any question put to them."

Although a few tribes had learned to pound soft copper into knives, the Indians did not know how to combine it with harder metals to make strong, sharp knives or axes. Most of their weapons and tools had to be fashioned out of wood, stone, or bone. Bows and arrows were made of wood. Knives, hatchets, clubs, spear-heads, and arrowheads were usually made of stone, though in the far north some of the knives had blades of beaver teeth, or caribou antlers, and on the Pacific coast the blades might be made out of shells. Since all these weapons took a very long time to make, it is not surprising that the Indians were ready to trade almost anything they had for the knives and hatchets the white men brought with them.

THEIR FOOD

The Iroquois and Huron tribes, who lived in the valley of the St. Lawrence River, learned to till the soil. Since they had neither spades nor ploughs, they scratched the surface of the soil with pointed sticks before planting their seed. They grew Indian corn, beans, pumpkins, and tobacco. But they thought they were having poor fare unless their braves were able to bring home plenty of game and fish.

The wandering tribes had to depend entirely on the game they could kill, the fish they could catch, and the wild fruits and nuts they could find in the woods or on the plains. If fish and game were scarce, they starved. The northern Indians, the Athapascans, in the Mackenzie Valley, depended on the caribou, the musk-ox, the Arctic hare, and the wild fowl. The prairie Indians found their chief source of food in the buffalo. The Indians of the wooded areas around the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence River hunted the moose, the deer, the bear, and all the smaller animals and wild fowl of the forest.

THEIR HOMES

The Indians who lived where food was plentiful enjoyed a much higher standard of living than did those who wandered from place to place in search of game and fuel. For example, the West Coast Indians were much more fortunate than the other Indians of Canada. The climate was mild. Great shoals of salmon went up their rivers and streams every year and plenty of sea-otter and seals could be taken from the waters near their villages. These Indians were able to establish permanent villages. Tall red cedar trees which grew on the Pacific Coast supplied the lumber with which the Indians built long rectangular homes. Each house sheltered several families. It took a long time to prepare the lumber. With stone axes, the Indians cut gashes in the huge trees and then built fires in the holes they had made. They had to watch the fire carefully and bank it with sand if it burned too quickly, for they knew that a forest fire could destroy their settlement. When the tree fell they chopped it and charred it into shorter logs. Then with hammers and wedges they split the wood into planks. Sometimes they decorated the beams and uprights with elaborate carving. In front of each house they put a tall totem pole, carved and painted to tell the history of the families which lived there. Only tribes which were able to secure their food, clothing, and shelter without too much labour could spare time and effort for these arts.

The Indians of the prairie, the Blackfoot tribes, the Crees, and Assiniboines, lived in teepees made of caribou

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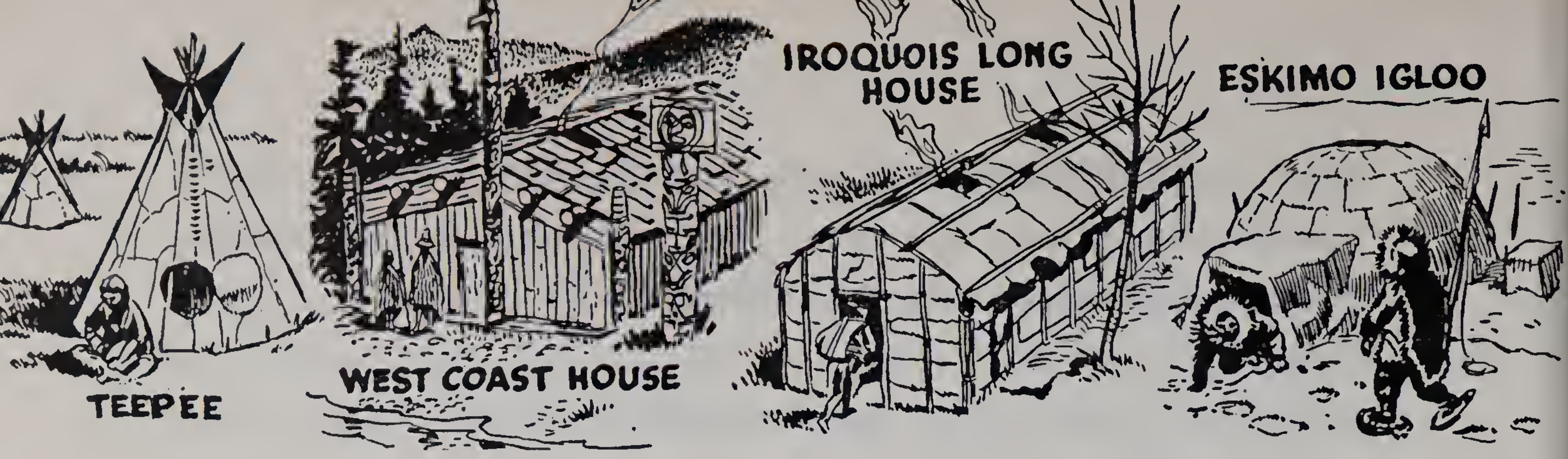


or buffalo skin or of bark stretched tight over a framework of poles. Sometimes an artist in the tribe painted designs on these teepees. When the tribe had to move to a new hunting-ground the teepees could be taken down easily and carried to the new camp.

The Indians of the wooded country around the Great Lakes and the St. Lawrence, the Algonquin, Huron, and Iroquois tribes, used teepees, too. Sometimes, however, if a tribe was fortunate enough to find a patch of soil suitable for cultivation in an area where the hunting was good, a more permanent settlement was established. Then they built long houses, which, like modern apartment blocks, sheltered several families. When Champlain explored the Huron country, he visited some of these long houses. He reported:

> "Their cabins are a kind of arbour or bower, covered with bark, approximately fifty or sixty yards long by twelve wide, with a passage ten or twelve feet broad down the middle from one end to the other. Along each side runs a bench four feet above the ground, where the inmates sleep in summer to avoid the innumerable fleas. In winter they sleep close to the fire on mats, underneath the benches where it is warmer. They fill the hut with dry wood to burn at that season. A space is left at one end of the cabin for storing their corn, which they place in large bark barrels in the middle of the floor. Boards suspended overhead preserve their clothing, food, and other possessions from the numerous mice. There will be a dozen fires to each cabin, making two dozen families. The smoke circulates

at will, causing much eye trouble, to which the natives are so subject that many become blind in their old age. There is no window in the cabin, and no opening except a place in the roof where the smoke finds an outlet."

THEIR CLOTHING

For clothing most of the Indians wore the skins of animals, chiefly of the deer and the caribou. Since people all over the world seem to want ornaments and fine clothes, it is not surprising that the Indians did, too. Tribes that did not have to spend all their energy in obtaining food or fighting their enemies often decorated their costumes with feathers, or shells, or the claws of animals. Sometimes they embroidered their garments in artistic patterns with porcupine quills which had been dyed a bright colour. The West Coast Indians pounded the bark of the red cedar until it was soft, and wove the fibres into cloth.

TRAVEL

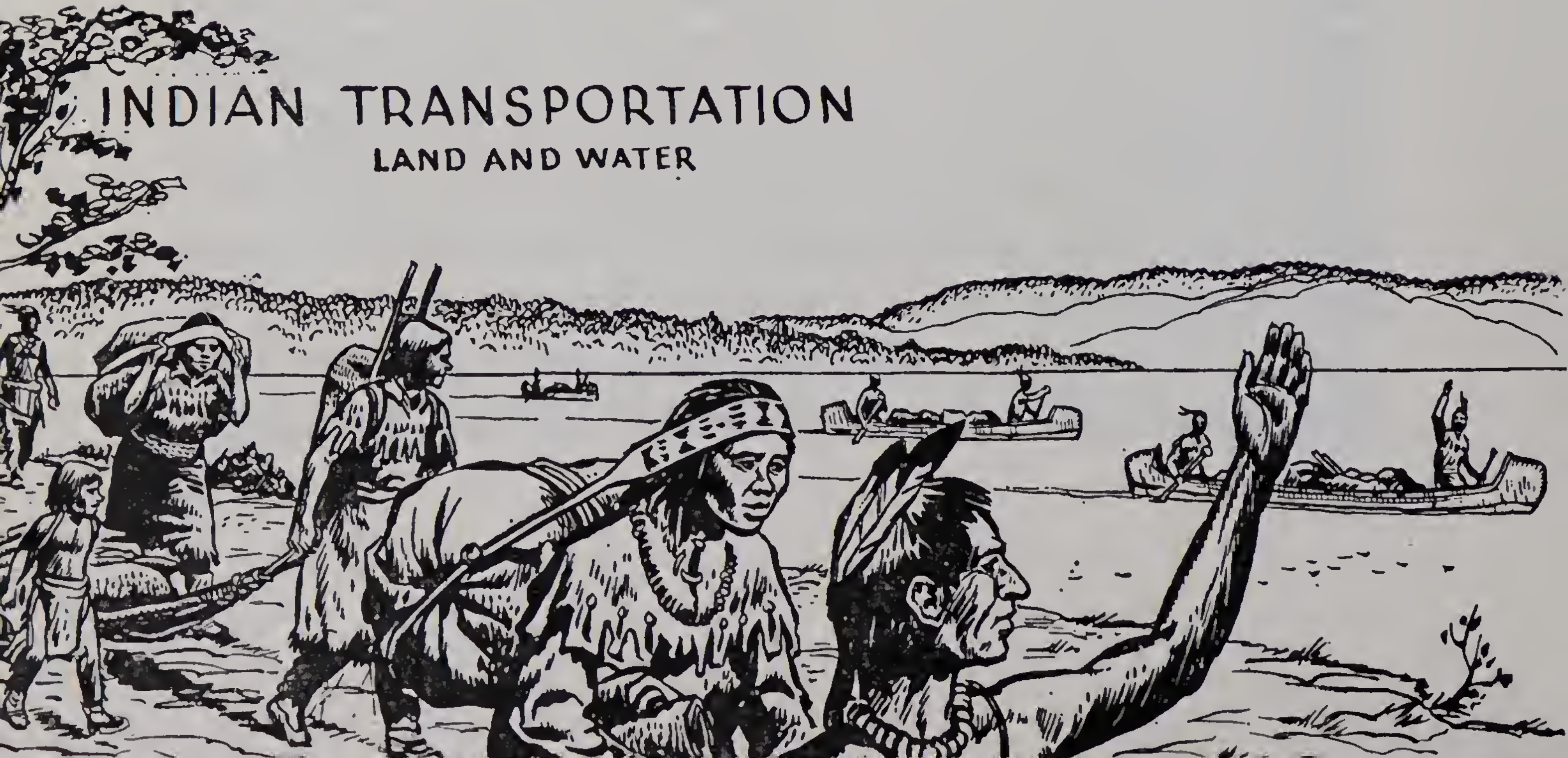
Most of the Indians had to move about from place to place in search of food. The West Coast Indians could build permanent homes because they could be sure of a good supply of food from the sea. Some of the Hurons and Iroquois who had learned to grow corn and other vegetables remained in one place until the soil was exhausted. Most of the Indians, however, had to move often. When one area had been fished out or hunted out, the tribe moved in search of better hunting and fishing.

If possible, the Indians travelled by water. The birchbark canoe was, without doubt, the most valuable invention made by the Indians. It was light to carry over portages, easily repaired wherever birch trees grew, and not difficult to make. An Indian and his wife could make one in about two weeks. They made a frame of wood, which had been soaked in water to make it bend as they wanted it. Then they covered this frame with sheets of birch-bark which they sewed together with thread from the roots of trees.

The Indians on the West Coast, though they did not move from place to place, needed boats for fishing and for hunting the seals and otters. They made long dugouts by chopping and charring huge cedar trees until they had hollowed them out.

For winter travel the Indians made snowshoes out of a frame of bent wood, interspersed with a network of sinews or of hide cut into strips. On their snowshoes they could move swiftly over the deep snow, while the deer and moose they hunted were slowed down because their small hoofs sank into the snow.

Until after the white man came the Indians had no horses. When they travelled by land they carried their possessions in packs on their backs or dragged them on toboggans or travois. The travois was made of two poles tied together on which they tied their teepees and other belongings. If the tribe had dogs, the dogs dragged the toboggans or travois. If there were not enough dogs, the women and children dragged their possessions to the new camping-ground. This was their share of the work on



moving day, because the warriors had to have their weapons ready at all times to defend the tribe from enemies it might meet.

EDUCATION

Indian boys were carefully trained in the arts of hunting and fishing and fighting. Their lives and the lives of the tribe would some day depend on how well they had learned their lessons. The girls learned from their mothers how to prepare food, how to tan skins and make clothing and tents, how to make the birch-bark baskets they used.

THE ESKIMOS

The people who made their homes along the Arctic coast and in Greenland were very different in appearance, language and customs from the Indian tribes. The Indians named them Eskimos which means "eaters of raw meat". Before the white men came (and even to-day in areas where the Eskimos are not in contact with white men) their diet was entirely meat and fish, often eaten raw. In that cold barren land there are no wild fruits to be found and no grain grows.

It is easier to learn how the Eskimos lived than it is to learn about the Indians before the white men came, for in some parts of the North there are Eskimos living just as their ancestors lived hundreds of years ago.

In winter the Eskimos hunted the seal, the walrus, the narwhal, and the polar bear. In summer they ventured inland to find caribou, musk-oxen, and the Arctic foxes of the northern plains. Their clothing was made from the skins of the animals they succeeded in killing. From the fat of their prey they made oil which they burned in stone

lamps. These lamps, with wicks made of moss, supplied what heat and light the Eskimos enjoyed in their dwellings during the long dark days of winter. Sometimes the Eskimo women hung bowls carved from soapstone over these lamps and cooked their food. The Eskimos made knives, harpoons, and fish-hooks from the bones of whales, seals, and walruses, and from the tusks of walruses and of narwhals, and the horns of caribou. The bones of the larger animals supplied the framework for their tents and their kayaks.

In summer when the Eskimos travelled in search of game they carried tents of skin which they set up over a framework of bone. They had to use whatever material they could find. In a few places there were stones which could be used for the walls of a dwelling, and sometimes an Eskimo was fortunate enough to find driftwood which he could use for the walls of a cabin. But most of their winter homes were igloos made from blocks of snow, because that was the only building material available.

The Eskimos were the first natives of America to come in contact with the white men. When the Norsemen came to Greenland, they found Eskimos settled there.

THE WHITE MEN LEARNED MANY THINGS FROM THE INDIANS AND THE ESKIMOS

There were many things that the people of Europe had learned which the Indians did not know. For example, the Indians had never learned to make and use a wheel.

For people who moved, as they did, from place to place in search of new hunting-grounds, wheels would have been most useful. They had no domestic animals, except the dog—no horses, or sheep, or cattle, or pigs. They had never seen sails on boats until the white men came.

There were, on the other hand, many things which the Indians and Eskimos had learned which the white men did not know. Even with their primitive weapons of wood and stone, the Eskimos and Indians were able to hunt and kill the animals they needed for food and clothing. Although the white men had better weapons, many of the early explorers and traders died of starvation because they were not as skilful in hunting as the natives were.

The Indians had invented the snowshoe, which made travel on foot possible through the deep snow. They had perfected the art of making light and strong birch-bark canoes. The Eskimos had learned to make their tiny kayaks and their larger umiaks of skins on a framework of bone. The first white men to try to explore this new land were helpless until they learned from the natives how to travel, how to make shelters for themselves, how to find the food they needed. Without the teepee, the canoe, and the snowshoe, the explorers could not have gone far.

The myths and legends of the Indians are a part of the heritage of our country. Our museums display the quill and shell embroidery of the eastern tribes, the totem poles, masks, and slate carvings of the West Coast Indians. Indian "names of music" linger in the names of rivers, lakes, provinces, cities, and towns throughout the country. Canada, Miramichi, Quebec, Ontario, Toronto, Manitoba, Winnipeg, Saskatchewan, Assiniboine, Kootenay, Okanagan—all these and hundreds more come from Indian words.

By 1960 the Indian population of Canada was about 180,000. There were some two hundred thousand when the French first came but thousands of Indians died from diseases which they caught from the white men, diseases unknown on this continent before the white men came. Epidemics of typhoid, tuberculosis, smallpox, and even measles destroyed whole bands of Indians. As the forests were cut down and the country filled with settlers, the wild life, upon which the Indians depended for their food and clothing, became very scarce. Many of the Indians, accustomed to winning a living from hunting and fishing, were unwilling to settle on the land and farm it. In the last fifty years, however, the Indian population has been steadily increasing.

The Canadian government, realizing that some provision must be made for them, set up a department, now called the Indian Affairs Branch, to help the Indians adjust to the new way of life. Areas of land varying in size from a few acres to tracts of over five hundred square miles have been set aside for the use of the Indians. These are called Reserves and the land is not taxable. Indians are allowed to trap, hunt and fish during the closed season when the white men are not allowed to do so. Indian mothers receive family allowances for their children, and many other welfare services, as well as schools and medical care, are provided by the government for the Indians on reserves. To govern themselves on local matters, the Indians of each band choose their own band councils. With some limitations, Indians, on or off the reserve, may vote in national elections.

The Indian Affairs Branch helps Indians to develop their reserves or to find jobs outside. In 1960 there were about 45,000 Indians living off the reserves and working as farmers, lumbermen, mechanics, soldiers, tradesmen, stenographers, or in the professions. Many have been particularly successful in steel construction on high buildings. There are also thousands of Canadian citizens who, though descended from Indians, have given up the rights and privileges the Indians enjoy and are no longer subject to the restrictions placed upon them, but have taken their place in the community on equal terms with other Canadians.

Many Indians fought bravely for their country during the two World Wars. Milton Martin, born on the Six Nations Reserve in Ontario, enlisted in the Canadian army and rose to the rank of brigadier. He later became a judge in York County Court. Frank Calder of British Columbia is the first Indian to take his place in the Legislative Assembly. He was elected in 1949, in 1952, and again in 1960. The first Indian to become a Senator is James Gladstone of Lethbridge, whose Indian name is Akay-na-muka. He was appointed to the Senate in 1958.

THE ESKIMOS TO-DAY

There are over eight thousand Eskimos in Canada to-day. Although they still depend mostly on hunting, trapping, and fishing for their living, they have learned to appreciate the goods they can get from the white man in exchange for their furs and walrus tusks. A few of them find jobs around the trading-posts and air-fields, and some make articles which they sell to traders. Many of them, who used to carve artistic designs on their bone weapons and tools, have discovered that ornaments carved from walrus tusks and soapstone can be sold to tourists and to buyers from department stores. Many beautiful examples

Eskimo carvings are a popular and distinctive Canadian art.

of Eskimo carvings are to be found in our Canadian museums. Nevertheless, if hunting is poor, or if the price of fur goes down, the Eskimos face hard times.

As more people went to live in the far north to open up mines, operate weather stations, and maintain airways, there was great danger that the supply of wild animals on which the Eskimo depended for food and clothing might disappear. The Canadian Government established large herds of reindeer near Aklavik to make up for these losses. The Eskimos, like the Indians, are allowed to hunt and trap in areas closed to white men. Family allowances are paid to Eskimo mothers, not in cash as in the rest of Canada, but in food and clothing. Missionary hospitals which have been established in the north get assistance from the government. It is not easy to provide education for tribes which move about from place to place, but the government is sending teachers into the north to teach the Eskimo children.

The Eskimo is spearing fish through a hole in the ice.

2. The Norsemen

"Three weeks we westward bore,
And when the storm was o'er,
Cloud-like we saw the shore
Stretching to leeward."
HENRY W. LONGFELLOW: *The Skeleton in Armour*

Greenland is one of the largest islands in the world, second only to Australia. To-day it belongs to Denmark. Until man began to fly across the Atlantic the rest of the world took little interest in Greenland. Now airfields and a weather station have been built there.

Except for a small area near the seacoast, Greenland is covered by a great sea of ice. The Eskimos who live there make a living hunting seals and curing the sealskins. In the short summer they grow a few hardy vegetables, and in some places there is enough pasture to feed a few sheep and cattle.

Visitors to Greenland to-day can see the ruins of very old buildings still standing, gaunt and mysterious, in that desolate land. Experts who have studied them tell us that they are the ruins of a settlement established there by Norsemen from Iceland before A.D. 1000.

THE FIRST WHITE MAN TO SEE AMERICA

It was in the year 985—as far as we know—that the first white man saw the shores of Canada. The name of this early discoverer was Bjarni Herjulfson.

In those days very few people ever travelled farther than a few miles from their own homes. They were kept busy making a living, securing enough food for themselves, building their own houses, making their own clothing, making the tools and weapons they needed, and defending themselves against their enemies.

Bjarni lands in Greenland.

Even the most learned men had no idea how large the continents of Europe and Africa and Asia were. None of them knew that America or Australia existed. And few of them doubted that the world was flat.

THE NORSEMEN WERE NOTED SAILORS

The Norsemen lived in Northern Europe in those parts we now know as Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Iceland. They found it hard enough to get food in their own countries, for there was not enough good land for them all to be able to make a living by farming, or raising sheep and cattle. Those who lived near the sea built boats and went fishing in the waters near their homes. In time they became very skilful sailors.

Sometimes the Norsemen ventured far from shore in their fishing boats. Sometimes they were carried far from home by sudden storms. When on their voyages they saw lands that were more prosperous than their own, they pulled their boats up on the shore and set out to attack and plunder. They seized food, clothing, gold, and silver, and carried their booty away to their own land. Sometimes the Norsemen decided that they would like to settle in these more fertile countries. Since they were strong fighters they were often able to drive away the people who were living there and take the lands for themselves.

The people of England feared these attacks so much that they used to pray in their churches, "From the fury of the Norsemen, good Lord, deliver us."

One group of the Norsemen seized part of France, another group forced the King of England to give them part of his country, and another group settled in Iceland.

ERIC THE RED FOUNDS A COLONY IN GREENLAND

The people from Norway who settled in Iceland were contented there, for they were able to make a comfortable living. They tilled the soil and kept sheep and cattle. In the deep sea around the island they found good fishing.

A prosperous farmer in Iceland, called Eric the Red, quarrelled with one of his neighbours. Words led to blows and in the struggle Eric killed his neighbour. We do not know who was to blame, but Eric's punishment was exile from Iceland.

Eric had heard tales about a land far to the west of Iceland. Since he could not live in Iceland any longer he decided to seek this country and make his home there. With his family and a few friends he sailed west until he sighted land. On this land he settled and built a stone house. He called his new home Greenland, because of the

green grass which grows quickly there in the short summer.

Eric went back to Iceland to tell his friends and neighbours about the land he had found, and to invite them to join him there. He told them about the bears, whales, seals, and walruses which they could kill for meat and oil and clothing. He told them that they would find good pasture for their sheep and cattle.

Twenty-five ships left Iceland to seek this new land. The voyage was so difficult that even the bravest of the adventurers wondered if they would ever reach land. Often there was thick fog and they could not see the sun by day nor the stars by night. The wind howled. Icebergs towered above the little ships. Huge waves threatened to dash them to pieces. Some of the ships were lost in the storm; some turned back to Iceland. Only fourteen of the twenty-five ships reached Greenland.

These Norsemen made new homes in Greenland, but it was not easy. They could not grow grain there. Since there were no trees, they had to build their houses and

barns of stone. Lumber for their doors and for their furniture had to be brought by ship from Norway. For the grain, lumber, and other things they needed, they traded whale bone, walrus ivory, bearskins, and sealskins.

BJARNI HERJULFSON SAILS ALONG THE COAST OF AMERICA

Bjarni Herjulfson, the first white man to see the shores of America, was a sailor who had made many voyages from Norway to Iceland. If the truth must be told, he was a pirate. Like the Norsemen who had swept down upon England in the time of Alfred the Great, he roamed the high seas in his own ship, looking for plunder. Yet he was, it appears, a dutiful son. His custom was, every second year, to go back to his home in Iceland to drink the Yuletide ale with his father. One Christmas he found that his father had gone with Eric the Red to Greenland. Bjarni did not even stop to unload his ship. The stormy waters of the Atlantic had no terrors for him. He set sail at once for Greenland.

Bjarni was a good sailor, but he did not know exactly where Greenland was. He had no compass to help him find his direction, for compasses were not invented until two hundred years after Bjarni made his voyage. He had no maps or charts. He knew only that Greenland lay to the west of Iceland.

Soon after he began his voyage, his ship was blown out of its course by a terrible storm. After several days of bad weather, Bjarni and his men came in sight of land. His men hoped to go ashore but when Bjarni saw that the shore was low and that there were trees on it he would not go ashore. He knew this could not be Greenland. He had been told that there were mountains along the shore of Greenland and that no trees grew there.

He turned his ship north. Again the crew sighted land and again his men wanted to go ashore to get fresh water. They urged Bjarni to stop and take on a cargo of the tall trees they saw growing on the shore, for they knew that they could find a good market for lumber in Greenland. But Bjarni had only one idea. He wanted to get to Greenland to see his father.

Once more the sailors sighted land, this time a bleak and rocky coast. Again Bjarni refused to land.

A few days later, Bjarni and his crew reached Greenland. When the sailors told about the lands and the trees they had seen, the settlers urged them to go back and bring lumber to Greenland. But Bjarni was not interested. He settled down in Greenland with his father.

LEIF THE LUCKY VISITS THE NEW LAND

Although Bjarni was not interested in finding out more about the new lands he had seen, there was another bold sailor who was. Leif the Lucky, a son of Eric the Red, determined to visit the lands Bjarni had described. Leif bought a sturdy wooden ship from Bjarni and gathered a crew of thirty-five men.

In the year 1000, nearly five hundred years before Columbus set sail from Spain for the New World, Leif and his bold crew sailed south-west from Greenland. The first land they sighted was rocky and barren. They called this country Helluland, which means "the country of flat rocks". We think it was the coast of Labrador. They did not stay long in Helluland, for they did not find anything there they could not find in Greenland.

Again they sailed south until they came to a land where large trees grew. They called this country Markland, which means "woodland". We believe, from the description of the country, that Markland was on the coast of the part of Canada now called Nova Scotia. Leif thought that this was a pleasant land, but he decided to look still farther along the coast before he chose a place to settle. If he did not find anything better, he could come back to Markland.

Again the little ship headed south. The Norsemen found a land where grain grew in the open spaces, where they were able to catch fat salmon in the rivers, where purple grapes hung on the vines. The Norsemen wondered what this strange fruit was for they had never seen any before. One of the men, who had travelled in the Mediterranean, was able to tell them that they had found grapes. They called this country Vinland, which means "land of vines". We do not know exactly where Vinland was. We know only that it was south of Nova Scotia.

Leif and his men liked Vinland so much that they built houses and stayed all winter. In the spring they loaded their ships with lumber and went back to Greenland. Leif never went back to Vinland. We do not know why.

Other people in Greenland who heard about the new land thought that they would like to go to Vinland to live. They hoped that it would be easier to make a living there than in Greenland. They thought about the tall trees that grew in Vinland—trees that meant strong lumber for houses, barns, and ships. In Greenland, there were no trees. They thought about the grain that sowed itself in the fields. In Greenland they could not grow grain. They thought about the wild grapes hanging on the vines. In Vinland, they said, they would be able to make all the wine they wanted.

THE NORSEMEN FOUND A SETTLEMENT IN VINLAND

Thorfinn Karlsefni, a prosperous merchant sailor, founded a settlement in Vinland, hoping to make money by shipping lumber and fish back to Greenland. He took a hundred and sixty men with him. Some of them took their families and all their possessions with them and planned to spend the rest of their lives in this rich and pleasant land.

These Norsemen stayed only four years in Vinland. At first the Indians were friendly and ready to trade with the newcomers. Since the Norsemen could not speak the language of the Indians and the Indians could not speak the Norse language, they had to carry on their trading by making signs, by nods and smiles or frowns. It is very hard for people to get along together when one group cannot understand what the other group wants to say. Before long there was trouble between the Norsemen and the Indians, and in a skirmish several were killed.

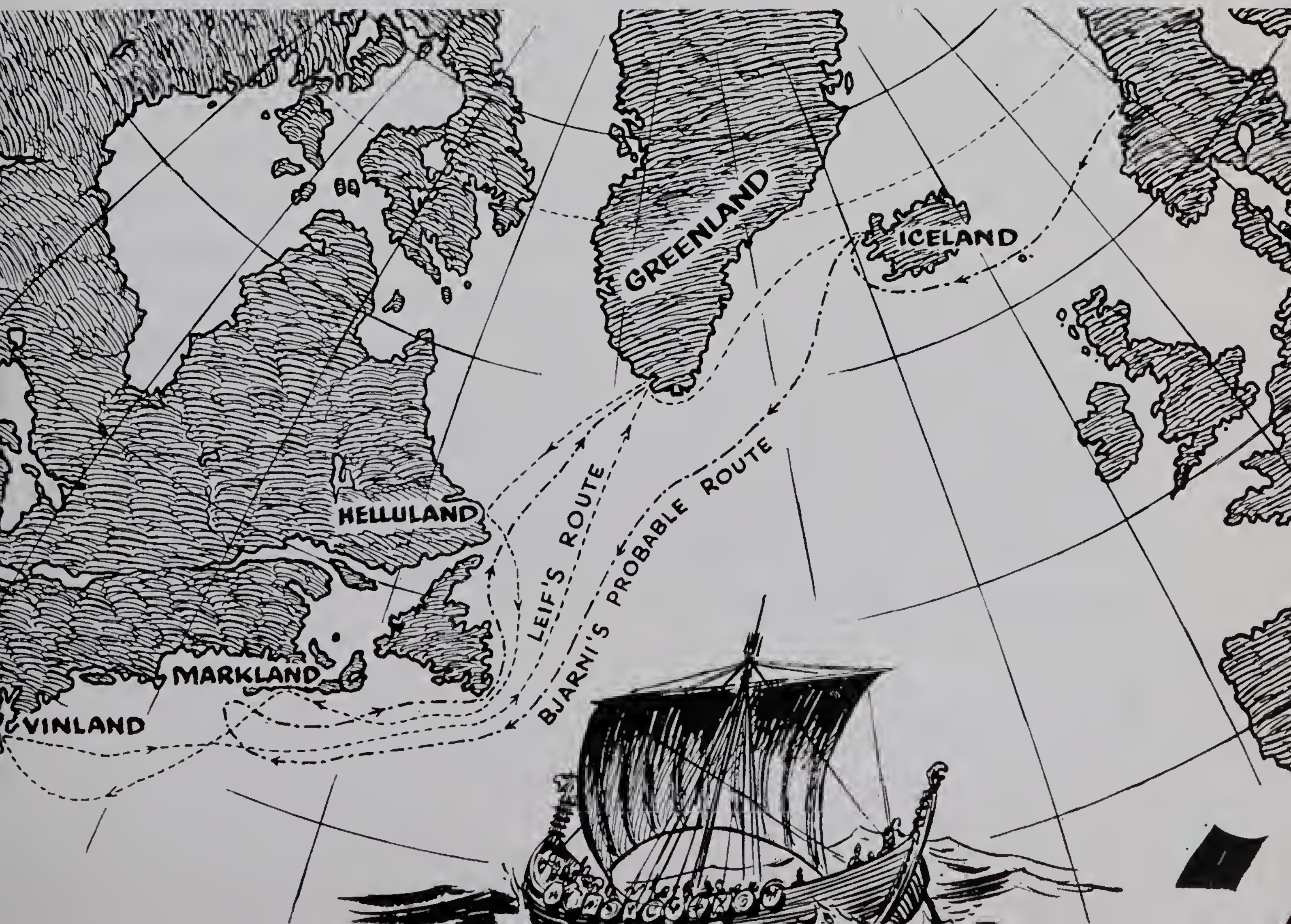
Thorfinn and his men decided that they would rather live in Greenland, where there were no Indians, even though they would have to do without the lumber, the fine salmon, the grain, and the grapes they had enjoyed in Vinland.

Other Norsemen visited Vinland later, but none of them made a permanent settlement there.

THE NORSEMEN FORGET THE NEW LAND

Many years passed before any other white men came across the Atlantic to America. In Iceland, in Denmark, and in Norway, stories were told about Bjarni, Leif the Lucky, and Thorfinn, and their voyages to the beautiful country of Vinland.

After a while, these stories began to sound like fairy tales. Few people knew whether these voyages had really taken place. The Norsemen became very busy at home, and ships no longer sailed back and forth from Iceland to Greenland. The little colony in Greenland disappeared and was forgotten. Experts who have studied the ruins of those early settlements are convinced that many of the settlers perished from starvation and disease, and others were killed by unfriendly Eskimos.



News travelled slowly in those days. Few people in Europe ever heard about the voyages of the Norsemen to the Western lands, and those who heard the stories did not know whether they were truth or legend. It was many years before other explorers set foot upon the shores of America.

In the 1870's groups of settlers came from Iceland to make new homes in Manitoba. Their descendants are proud of the fact that the first white men to step on the shores of Canada were of their race.

3. Spain Leads the Way

> "Some to the wars, to try their fortunes there;
> Some to discover islands far away."
> WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE: *Two Gentlemen of Verona*

For many years the Christian nations of Western Europe longed to take from the Turks the land where Christ had lived and taught. Expedition after expedition set out, trying in vain to gain control of the Holy Land. These expeditions were called the Crusades. When the Crusaders returned to their own lands they took with them silks, jewels and spices, and in time trade developed between Western Europe and Asia.

Spices were in great demand to preserve food in those days as people had no refrigerators or freezers. Merchants had a good market for any spices they could get, but the trade was difficult and dangerous. Caravans of traders travelled slowly across the country until they met other caravans bringing spices from the Far East. Hostile tribes and bandits often attacked the caravans, killed the traders, and seized the merchandise. Merchants hoped someone would find a safer route.

Sailors had discovered a way to the Far East by sailing round the tip of Africa, but there were some who believed it was possible to find a better route. Among these was Christopher Columbus, a sailor from Genoa, who was convinced that the world was round and that he could reach Asia by sailing west. As we know, he was right. He hoped that this might be a shorter route than the voyage around Africa. He did not dream that a great new continent lay between Europe and Asia.

For many weary years Columbus struggled to find someone who would provide ships and money for a voyage west. At last, in 1492, Queen Isabella of Spain agreed to finance an expedition.

On August 3rd, 1492, with three small ships, the *Pinta*, the *Nina*, and the *Santa Maria*, Columbus set out on his momentous voyage of discovery. Week after week the three little ships sailed westward. His men begged him to return; they threatened to mutiny. Columbus persuaded them to sail on for a few more days.

On the morning of October 12th, one of the sailors sighted land, a small island which Columbus named San Salvador. To-day it is called Watling Island. There the Spaniards found friendly copper-coloured natives, whom Columbus called Indians, so certain was he that he had reached Asia.

Columbus found no great cities or kings, no spices or silks, so he sailed on to the south-west in search of a land where the natives told him he would find gold. He landed on Cuba and claimed it for Spain. From Cuba he sailed to Hispaniola where he built a small wooden fort and left a garrison of thirty-nine volunteers to hold it.

Great was the rejoicing in Spain when Columbus returned with news of his discoveries. On his second voyage he had a fleet of fifteen ships, carrying fifteen hundred men. In the next few years thousands more followed, eager to share in the wealth of the new land. They were seeking quick and easy wealth, and the fortunate ones carried back to Spain boatloads of gold, silver, pearls, and jewels which they took from the Indians.

BALBOA VIEWS THE PACIFIC

Vasco Nunez de Balboa was one of the young Spanish adventurers who sought his fortune in the West Indies. He became a sugar planter with captive Indians working for him. When he heard that a ship was setting out for Venezuela, where Columbus had found pearls, he was determined to forsake the dull life of the plantation and join the expedition.

Unfortunately he was in debt, and he knew that the men to whom he owed money would not allow him to leave the island. To escape his creditors, he had a friend nail him and his dog in a barrel which was put on board the

ship. After the ship was well out to sea, Balboa knocked the lid off the barrel and reported to the captain. At first the captain said he would put Balboa ashore at the first island they saw, but after a few days the captain accepted him as one of his party. Later the crew mutinied and chose Balboa to lead them.

Balboa and his men landed in Panama, where they fought against the Indians. They captured a rich chief who brought them a great deal of gold. Later Balboa married the chief's daughter. The Indians of Panama told him that there was a great ocean not many miles to the west of them, and that south along the coast there was a very rich country where the people used gold cups and plates. Balboa was determined to see this ocean and he hoped to journey to the country the Indians described. With about two hundred men he set out through the swamps and jungles of Panama. It was a very difficult journey but the Spaniards pushed their way through. One day in 1513, Balboa climbed a mountain, and, looking to the west, beheld the mighty Pacific Ocean. He called it the South Sea. Balboa was the first white man to stand upon the eastern shore of the Pacific Ocean.

The land about which the natives spoke, the land where they used cups and plates of gold, was Peru. Balboa never saw it. When he returned to the Spanish settlements, enemies who were jealous of his success accused him of treason. He was put to death.

Ferdinand Magellan was a Portuguese sailor who had made trips to the Spice Islands by the route round the Cape of Good Hope. This was a long and difficult journey, and Magellan, like Columbus, hoped to find a shorter, easier route. When he heard about Balboa's discovery of the eastern coast of the Pacific, Magellan was certain that he could sail to the Spice Islands by sailing round the southern tip of South America. The King of Portugal was not interested in this venture but Magellan succeeded in interesting the King of Spain, who provided five ships, plenty of provisions, and trade goods for the expedition.

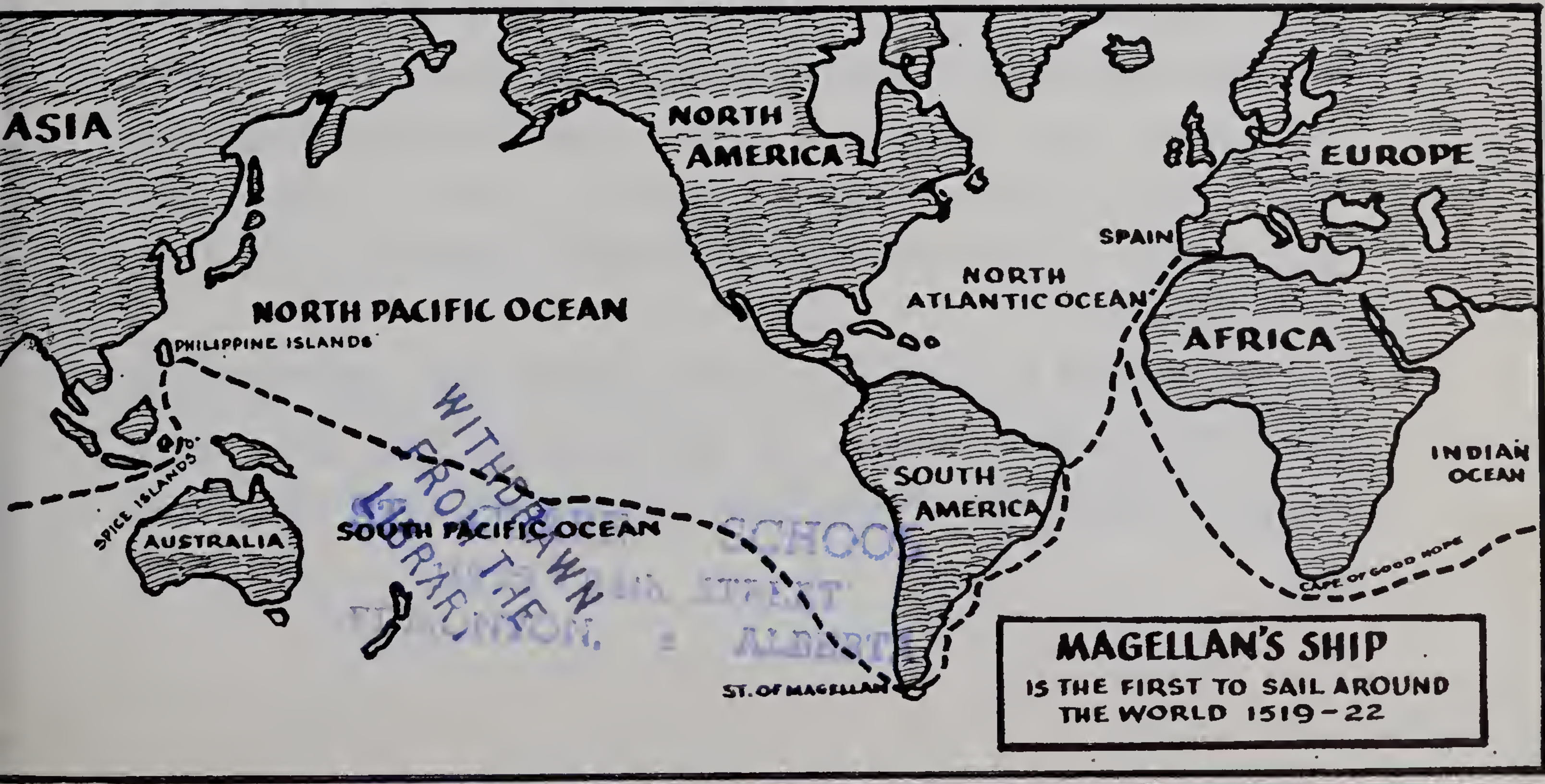
In September, 1519, Magellan set out to reach the East by sailing west as Columbus had hoped to do. His ships, unfortunately, were old and patched. One sailor said of them, "Their ribs are soft as butter." The adventurers loaded the ships with provisions for a long voyage and with trade goods, looking-glasses, beads, bracelets, bells, knives, fish-hooks.

Magellan sailed across the Atlantic, and then along the coast of South America, searching for a passage through to the Pacific Ocean. He had a difficult time. One of his ships was wrecked; another deserted and returned to Spain. Over a year after they had left home, the three remaining ships reached the Strait of Magellan and sailed through it to the Pacific.

The sailors begged Magellan to give up the venture, but he would not turn back. "I will go on," he said, "until we reach the Spice Islands. I will go on until the sails rot and the ships fall apart. I will go on, if need be, until we have to eat rats and the leather rigging of the ship falls apart." They did go on, and before they reached land again, they were so low in supplies that they did eat rats. Fortunately for the adventurers, the ocean was calm, so calm that Magellan gave it the name Pacific which means peaceful.

In 1521 Magellan reached the Philippine Islands, which he claimed for Spain. There Magellan was killed in a fight with the natives. One of his ships was so old and battered by this time that the sailors loaded its cargo of trade goods on to the other ships and abandoned it. With two ships, the *Victory*, and the *Trinidad*, the Spaniards reached the Spice Islands, and there they were able to buy so many spices from the natives that their ships were dangerously overloaded. The *Trinidad* sank and the little *Victory*, with a crew of eighteen men, sailed on alone across the Indian Ocean, round the Cape of Good Hope, and along the coast of Africa, home to Spain, arriving in September, 1522, three years after it had set out.

To Magellan's ship, the *Victory*, and its crew, belongs the honour of being the first to sail round the world. No new short easy route to Asia had been found. It was much longer and more difficult to reach the Spice Islands by sailing west than it was by the Cape of Good Hope route, but this expedition had proved to even the most doubtful that the world was, as Columbus had insisted, round. It had added, as did every expedition, to the growing body of knowledge about the world.



MAGELLAN'S SHIP
IS THE FIRST TO SAIL AROUND
THE WORLD 1519–22

WITHDRAWN FROM THE LIBRARY
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Ponce de León settled in Puerto Rico, hoping to make his fortune there. Some Indians told him about a land where there was a magic fountain. Anyone who drank the water from this magic fountain, they said, would become young again.

> "Then answered de León, the sailor:
> 'I am wrinkled and withered and old;
> I would rather discover that fountain
> Than a country of diamonds or gold!' "

In search of the Fountain of Youth, Ponce de León and his men sailed westward, and in 1513 they came to a land more beautiful than any they had ever seen. Because of the beautiful flowers, Ponce de León named it Florida, which means "land of flowers". He claimed the country for Spain, but he did not find the Fountain of Youth. No one ever has.

In 1565 Spanish settlers built a settlement in Florida which they called St. Augustine. It is the oldest city in the United States.

CORTEZ CONQUERS MEXICO

Hernando Cortez invaded Mexico in 1519. The Aztecs of Mexico were a rich and highly civilized tribe of Indians who had good laws, fine buildings, well-built roads. Their craftsmen made beautiful plates and bowls of gold and silver, with artistic designs beaten into them. They made magnificent cloaks of many-coloured feathers pasted on to cotton web.

Cortez had an army of six hundred men and he took with him sixteen horses. As the Indians had never seen horses before, they were more afraid of them than they were of the men. To make certain that his men would not desert him, Cortez burned his ships.

When messengers brought news of the arrival of the Spaniards, Montezuma, the chief of the Aztecs, sent magnificent presents of gold and silver plates as large as wagon wheels, and cloaks of feathers, hoping that these presents would satisfy the invaders. The sight of such wealth made Cortez determined to see more of this country.

At first the Aztecs treated the Spaniards as guests. Montezuma did not want to fight but some of the Aztecs, who feared the white men and wanted to drive them out, killed Montezuma. Cortez realized that his men were greatly outnumbered by the Aztecs, and decided it would be wise to escape with the treasures he had collected. Carrying their loads of gold and jewels, he and his men tried to steal out of the city at night. The Aztecs were watching and they attacked the invaders and killed a great many of them. The Spaniards had no choice. They had to fight. After bitter battles they succeeded in defeating the Indians. Cortez tore down the Aztec city and built a Spanish city in its place where Mexico City now stands.

The Spaniards took possession of Mexico as they had done in the islands of the West Indies. They sent shiploads of gold and silver and emeralds back to Spain, and forced the Indians to work the mines to produce more. Missionaries came to convert the Indians to Christianity. Settlers came and took up land near the missions while some of the conquerors took possession of large areas of land and raised cattle.

PIZARRO IN PERU

Francisco Pizarro had been with Balboa in Panama and there he had heard about the tribe to the south which drank from gold cups and used gold plates. In 1531, he crossed the isthmus, built boats to carry him south, and sailed to Peru. There he found a tribe of Indians, known as the Incas, even richer and more highly civilized than the Aztecs. Pizarro with his small army of one hundred and eighty-five men could have had little hope of conquering the Incas if the Indians had been united, but, fortunately for him, a civil war was in progress. He joined one side, took one of the leaders captive, and ransomed him for an enormous amount of gold. He did not kill the Inca chief, but he made himself the real ruler of Peru and became very rich. He founded the city of Lima in 1535, but three years later he was murdered in his palace by jealous Spaniards.

CORONADO AND DE SOTO ADD TO SPAIN'S CLAIMS

Other Spanish explorers helped to establish Spain's claim to great areas of what is now the United States. Francisco Coronado in 1540 to 1542 travelled through New Mexico, Arizona, California, Oklahoma, and Texas, seeking for the Seven Jewelled Cities the Indians had told the Spaniards about. He found no jewelled cities, for there were none, but he claimed this vast area for Spain.

Hernando De Soto set out from Florida with five hundred and fifty men hoping to find another country as rich as Mexico or Peru. He wandered through Florida, Georgia, South Carolina, Alabama, Mississippi, and Tennessee. He discovered the Mississippi and crossed it. But by the end of three years, half his men had been killed and he was weary of the search. De Soto decided to build boats and float down the river, hoping to reach the Spanish settlements in Mexico from the mouth of the river, but before the boats were built he died. His men eventually reached a Spanish village in Mexico. De Soto found no gold, but he, like Coronado, gave Spain a claim to all the southern part of the United States.

OTHER NATIONS DISPUTE SPAIN'S CLAIMS TO THE NEW WORLD

Spain was a very powerful nation at this time, and the discoveries in America made her more powerful than ever. With the treasure the Spanish adventurers brought home, she became very rich. Naturally other nations wanted to share in the wealth of the new world. It was not long before ships of several nations began to dispute Spain's supremacy.

4. An Italian Adventurer

> "My purpose holds
> To sail beyond the sunset and the baths
> Of all the western stars."
>
> ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON: *Ulysses*

JOHN CABOT BELIEVES THE WORLD IS ROUND

Even before Columbus reached the West Indies in 1492, another Italian seaman was trying to reach Asia by sailing west. This was Giovanni Caboto—or John Cabot, as the English called him.

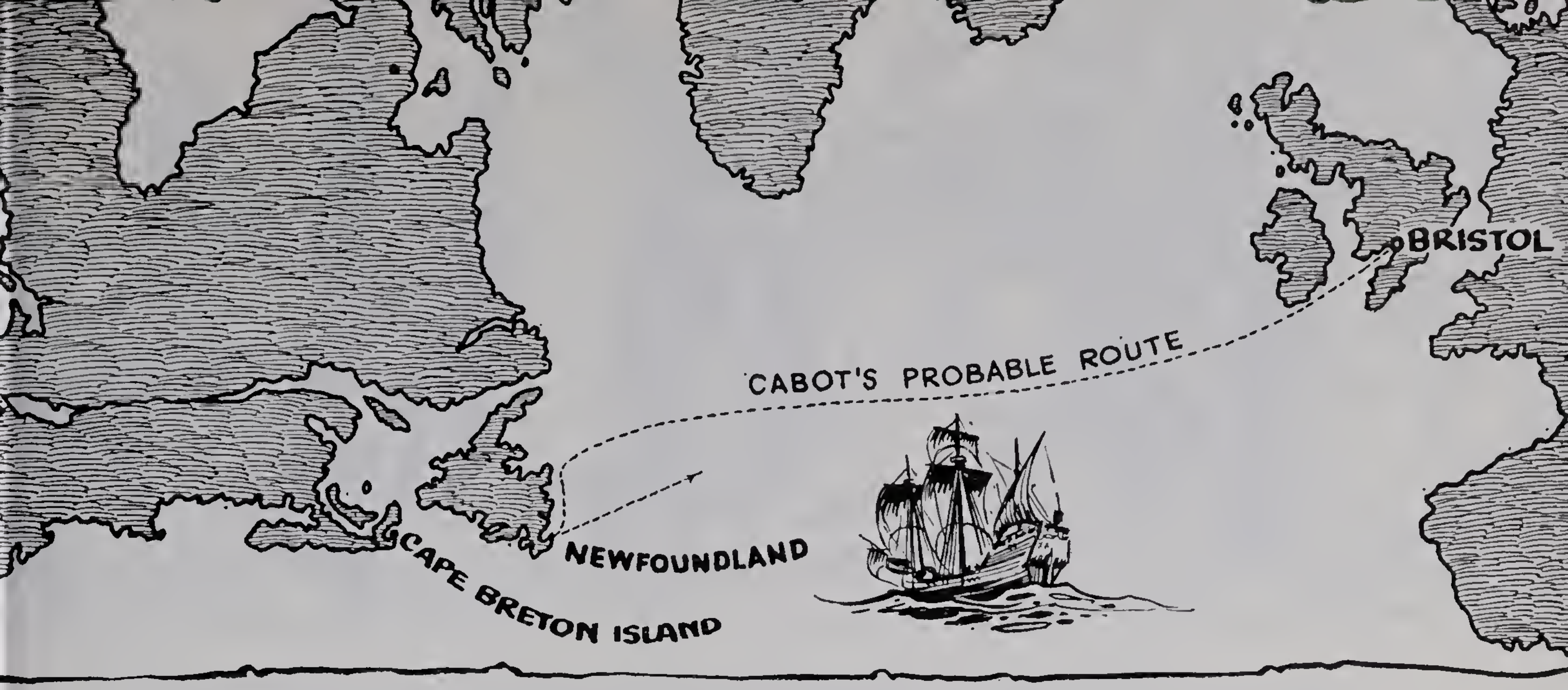
As a young man John Cabot visited the Near East buying silks and spices for a great trading-house in Venice. Like Columbus, Cabot thought that the world was round, and the idea occurred to him that he might be able to reach the country where the spices grew by sailing westward across the Atlantic. It is hard for us to realize what a dazzling idea this was in those days. The Far East was said to be a land of fabulous wealth. If only Cabot could find a direct trade route, he would be rich. Neither Cabot nor Columbus, nor any of the people who lived at that time, knew anything about the great continent of America which barred their way to the Far East. They thought the world was much smaller than it is. Cabot believed that Asia was about as far from Europe as America actually is.

HE PERSUADES THE ENGLISH TO BACK HIS VOYAGES

About 1484, John Cabot went to England, which he thought would be the best starting-point for his voyage. There he succeeded in arousing the interest of Henry VII and the merchants of Bristol, the most important seaport on the west coast of the British Isles. They helped to equip Cabot for the voyage, hoping that they would reap great profits from the venture.

From Bristol, Cabot made several voyages of discovery to the westward—just how many we do not know. But alas, each time he returned without having sighted land of any sort. The winds and fogs of the North Atlantic drove him back. However, when the news reached England that Christopher Columbus had succeeded in reaching the Indies farther south, hope rose again and Cabot

After several unsuccessful ventures some of the merchants of Bristol thought that the idea of reaching Asia by sailing west was fantastic, but Cabot was very persuasive. "He explained his plan in such a way," wrote an Italian living in England, "that I, too, believe in it, though I have nothing to gain or lose by it."



was able to persuade the King and the merchants of Bristol to outfit him once more.

CABOT DISCOVERS A NEW LAND ACROSS THE ATLANTIC

In the spring of 1497, Cabot set sail in a tiny ship, the *Mathew*, with a crew of eighteen men. This time after fifty-two days at sea he succeeded in reaching what he thought were the shores of Asia. Actually, he had landed on the shores of Canada. Just what part of Canada he landed upon first is still in dispute. Some historians say it was Newfoundland, some say it was Cape Breton Island. The people of Newfoundland are so sure that it was upon their island that he landed that every year they celebrate the date of his landing, June 24th, as John Cabot day. He landed, unfurled the English flag, and took possession of the country in the name of Henry VII of England.

Though he did not see any natives, Cabot and his crew knew that the country was inhabited, for they found hunting snares and some notched or "blazed" trees. Since the purpose of this expedition was to discover a new route to Asia, Cabot did not proceed any farther. Confident that he had realized his ambition, he returned to England to tell what he had found.

What signs of habitation did Cabot and his men find in this new country?

When the news of Cabot's achievement spread in Bristol, he became a popular hero. Henry VII, though he was a careful man with money, granted Cabot a pension for life and promised to fit him out with a larger expedition the next spring. Cabot began to call himself "the Admiral". "Nor does my lord the Admiral," wrote one of his sarcastic Italian friends in London, "esteem himself anything less than a prince." Cabot began to promise lands and offices to his friends. He even promised an island to his barber, who straightway began to call himself a count.

CABOT'S SECOND VOYAGE TO THE NEW FOUND LAND

In the spring of 1498 Cabot set sail again for the "new found land", this time with two large ships and a company of three hundred men. He crossed the Atlantic and followed the coast of America from Labrador south to somewhere near Chesapeake Bay. He landed and met some Indians, and even did a little trading with them. But they had no silks or spices for him, no precious jewels—only a few furs. It may be that he suspected that he had not reached Asia, and wondered whether perhaps he had found another new land. In any case, supplies were running low and the crews were anxious to reach home. The time had come when he must turn back.

DISAPPOINTMENT

Cabot's home-coming in 1498 must have been very different from that of the previous year. He had promised to return with "the wealth of Ormuz and of Ind" but all he brought back was a few furs and some fish.

To the men of his time, Cabot's life seemed, no doubt, a tragic failure. But the verdict of to-day is not always the verdict of to-morrow. Although Cabot did not find the western passage to Asia, he was able to report that a new continent barred the western route to Asia. Although he did not bring back with him the spices and silks he was seeking, he has a place in history as the first European to engage in the fur trade with the American Indians. More important, however, is the fact that he led the way to the fisheries on the Grand Banks of Newfoundland. Cabot told about catching codfish by lowering a basket with a stone in it into the sea. His son, Sebastian, wrote in his diary that the cod were "so numerous that they sometimes stopped our ships".

As soon as the news of the good fishing-ground became known, ships from England, Portugal, France, and Spain set out for the Grand Banks. The Grand Banks is the name given to a great underwater shelf, stretching south and east from Newfoundland. The water is shallow, averaging about fifty fathoms (three hundred feet) in depth. In this shallow water an abundance of plankton grows, supplying food for many small fish. The small fish in turn supply food for the larger ones. The cold Arctic current flows across the Grand Banks, and, since the best fish are found in cold water, this cold current, along with a plentiful supply of food, makes conditions there ideal for fish. For over four hundred years, ever since John and Sebastian Cabot returned from their voyage, fishermen have been taking great hauls of cod, flounder, roefish, and haddock from the Grand Banks. Every spring scores of little sailing ships set out from the ports of Europe to cross the stormy Atlantic and in the autumn return home laden with fish. To-day such names on the map of Newfoundland as English Harbour, Frenchman's Cove, Portugal Cove, Port aux Basques remind us of the bold sailors from many nations who first cast their nets on the Grand Banks over four centuries ago.

Cabot died shortly after his return from his second trip. He never realized that the fur trade and the fisheries might be a source of wealth as great as the trade in silks and spices could have been.

So far as practical results were concerned, the real discoverer of Canada was not Bjarni Herjulfson, or Leif the Lucky. It was John Cabot, the bold Italian adventurer whose smooth tongue persuaded Henry VII and the merchants of Bristol to risk their money in his enterprise.

When the merchants of Bristol learned from Cabot about the waters so abundant in fish, they sent out vessels to bring back quantities of codfish to hungry England. Food was so scarce everywhere in those days that the discovery of a new source of supply was very important. The news soon spread and before long ships from every nation of western Europe had found their way to the Grand Banks.

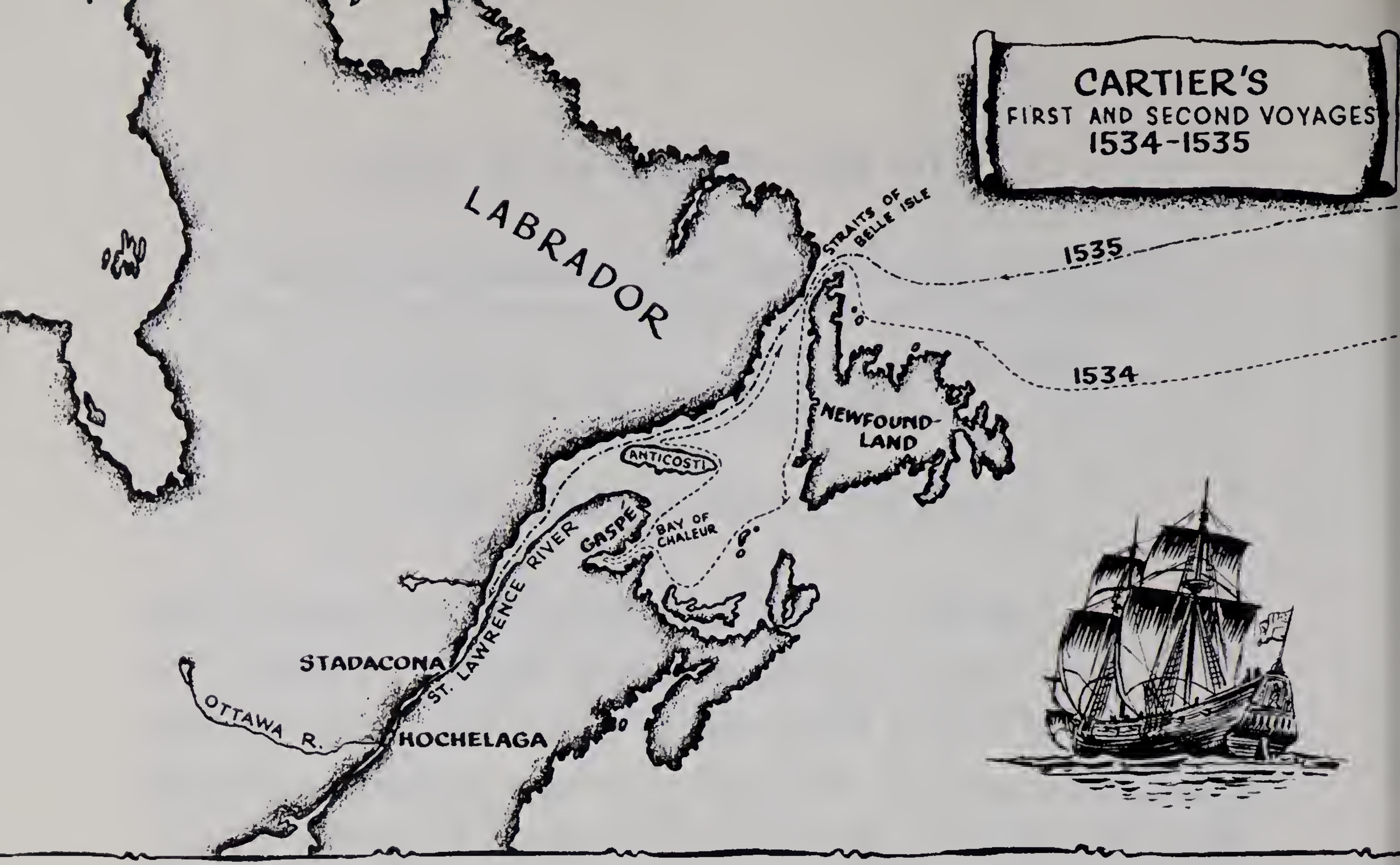
5. The Sea Captain of St. Malo

> "In the sea-port of St. Malo, 'twas a smiling morn in May,
> When the Commodore Jacques Cartier to the westward
> sailed away."
>
> THOMAS D'ARCY McGEE: *Jacques Cartier*

JACQUES CARTIER LANDS AT GASPE

In the summer of 1534 a band of Huron Indians had set up their camp near the mouth of the St. Lawrence, on the shores of Gaspé Basin, where they came every summer to fish for mackerel. One day they saw two white-winged ships sail into the Basin to take refuge from the stormy seas outside. The Indians must have had sailing vessels visit them before, for they promptly jumped into their canoes and came out to welcome the strange ships. No doubt the fishermen who came across the Atlantic every year for cod had visited them, and probably the Indians had traded with the visitors and received presents from them.

The new visitors, however, were not fishermen. These ships were under the command of a French sea captain named Jacques Cartier. He had been sent out by Francis I of France to explore the Atlantic coast of what is now Canada with the object of finding a passage through to the East Indies. By this time it was realized that America was not Asia, but a barrier that lay between Europe and Asia. The greatest ambition of Francis I was that it should be an explorer in his service who should be the first to find a passage through this new continent which barred the way to the riches of Asia. He had already sent out one expedition to explore the coast of America under the command of an Italian sailor named Verrazano. In his explorations, Verrazano had examined carefully the coast-



line from Cape Hatteras to Nova Scotia but he had not found the western passage. Still hopeful, the King was willing to try again. He instructed Jacques Cartier to look for new lands, for gold, and for a water route to Asia.

With two small ships and sixty men Cartier set out. After twenty days the ships anchored off the coast of Newfoundland. They rested there for ten days and then proceeded north towards the Strait of Belle Isle. Their course brought them near a small island so thickly covered with birds that they called it Isle of Birds. There they filled two boat-loads with small fat birds which provided six barrels of salted meat. These birds were great auks, now extinct. Soon after they saw a polar bear swimming in the sea. They captured it and found it, according to Cartier, "as good to eat as any heifer of two years".

Through the Strait of Belle Isle, across the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and south as far as Prince Edward Island, the explorers made their way. When they failed to find a passage to the west they turned north again and entered the Bay of Chaleur. Here they hoped they had found what they were seeking but to their great disappointment they soon realized they were in a land-locked bay. Once more they sailed north until a storm forced them to take refuge in Gaspé Basin.

Cartier set up a wooden cross at Gaspé, claiming the land for France, but when the Indians saw it they objected, although they did not know what Cartier and his men were saying, or what the emblems on the cross meant. The chief, with his brother and his sons, came out to the ships and protested by signs that the land belonged to them and that they did not want the white man's cross there. Cartier gave them presents and explained that the cross was there to guide other sailors. He decked the chief's sons out in French clothes and gave them each a red cap. So well did he persuade the chief that the French meant the Indians no harm that the chief allowed his two sons to go with Cartier to France in order to learn the French language and customs.

At Gaspé, Cartier set up a huge wooden cross, thirty feet high, with a shield on it bearing the three lilies, which were the emblem of France, and the words "Vive le Roi de France". This meant that he was establishing the claim of the King of France to this territory. Explorers usually put up markers of this sort, even when they could not leave anyone in the new land to maintain their claim.

Cartier had found no gold or silver or precious jewels, no silks, no spices. But he had learned that there was a great river flowing from the west and that there were three Indian kingdoms on the banks of the mighty river. Moreover, although he did not realize how important the fur trade would become, he was the first to take back to France furs he had obtained from the Indians. The King of France was so pleased with Cartier's report that he commissioned him to return to Canada the next year.

CARTIER'S SECOND VOYAGE

In the spring of 1535 Cartier set out again, this time with three ships, provisions for fifteen months, and a crew of over a hundred men. With him, also, were two Indian lads who had accompanied him from Gaspé. He sailed through the Gulf of St. Lawrence into the St. Lawrence River—the first white man to enter that great waterway which leads into the heart of Canada. Where the city of Quebec now stands he found the Indian village of Stadacona. At first the Indians, who had never seen white men or ships with sails before, were afraid and would have run away if the two Indians had not shouted to them in their own language. To Cartier's disappointment, Stadacona was not a rich city. It was a small Indian village, with huts of birch-bark, poor, dirty, and smoky.

Donnaconna, the chief of the tribe of Stadacona, tried to prevent Cartier from going farther up the river. As Cartier hoped the St. Lawrence would lead him to Asia, he ignored Donnaconna's advice. Leaving some of his men in Stadacona, he pushed on up the river. In nine days he came to another Indian village, Hochelaga, situated on the island where now stands Montreal, the largest city of Canada.

Cartier was delighted with the country along the St. Lawrence. It was autumn and the Indians were harvesting their crops of corn, melons, beans, squash, pumpkins, and tobacco. Indian hunters were stalking deer in the forests and catching fish in the river. But Hochelaga, like Stadacona, was a disappointment. Here was no rich Oriental city, only another poor Indian village. The natives, thinking the Frenchmen were gods who had come to visit them, brought their sick hoping that the white man's touch had healing power.

Cartier climbed to the top of the mountain which dominates the island of Montreal. From this mountain, to which he gave the name Mount Royal, he looked out over the surrounding country. To the north-west were the waters of the Ottawa River. To the south-west he beheld the upper St. Lawrence. Surely one of these great rivers would lead him to Asia! The Indians, however, told him that both rivers were full of rapids which would smash the white man's boats. It was late in the season and he had been warned about the cold winter. Cartier was a sailor, accustomed to the seas. Unwilling to leave his ships

Why would Cartier's hopes have risen as he surveyed the country from the top of Mount Royal?

and attempt to navigate the rapids in small boats, he returned to Stadacona.

Cartier's men who had remained at Stadacona had built a fort beside the ships, and there Cartier decided to wait for spring. Little did he or his men know what was in store for them. The winter was terrible beyond anything they had feared. The temperature sank many degrees below zero. As a result of the lack of fresh food many of the party developed scurvy and twenty-five of them died. "Sometimes," wrote Cartier later, "we were constrained to bury some of the dead under the snow, since we were not able to dig graves for them, the ground being frozen so hard, and we so weak." They began to fear that all would perish. Just in time Cartier found an Indian cure for scurvy. By chance he learned that the Indians made medicine from the bark and buds of the spruce trees. He made some of this medicine for his men and made them take it.

When spring came, Cartier set sail for home. With him he took the Chief, Donnaconna, and several other Indians. He wanted them to tell the French King about the riches to be found farther west on the St. Lawrence.

CARTIER'S THIRD VOYAGE

Jacques Cartier came to Canada once more in 1541, this time to found a colony. The King appointed Sieur de Roberval governor of the proposed colony and Cartier his captain general. While Roberval remained in France gathering settlers and supplies, Cartier went ahead to prepare the way.

When Cartier appeared at Stadacona, the Indians rushed out to welcome Donnaconna and the other Indians who had gone to France six years before. Unwilling to admit

Cartier and his men had the task of preparing for the settlers who were expected in the spring. They built a fort large enough to protect the proposed colony from the Indians.

that they had all died in France, Cartier said that Donnaconna had died and that the others were now great lords in France.

The Frenchmen built a fort and planted a garden. They found stones that they thought might be diamonds and rocks that sparkled like gold. Cartier hoped that he had found in Canada wealth such as the Spaniards had found in the south.

The settlers had a hard winter. The weather was cold; some died of disease; thirty-five were killed by the Indians. As soon as the river was free of ice, they set sail for home. On their way they met Roberval, who commanded them to turn back. But Cartier and his men had seen enough of Canada. They slipped away at night and sailed home to France.

We know very little about Roberval's stay in Canada. Some of his colonists were adventurous gentlemen from France who were unaccustomed to hard work, others were convicts who had been taken from the prisons to accompany Roberval. We know that it was not long before Roberval, too, sailed back to France.

Canada was a disappointment to France. The quartz which Cartier hoped contained diamonds was of no value. The sparkling rocks were not gold but probably iron pyrites—fool's gold it is called, since so many have been deceived by it. We know to-day that there is a great wealth of gold, silver, copper, nickel and other valuable minerals in Canada. But many years passed before anyone found them.

There was a source of great wealth waiting for Europeans in Canada. This wealth was in the fur trade, but it was another sixty years before the French realized how profitable the fur trade could be.

Cartier's voyages, like those of John Cabot, were considered a failure because they did not reach the great cities of the Far East. But he is honoured as the first to plant the French flag on Canadian soil. He was the first to discover the great water-way by which his successors pushed into the heart of the continent. Though more than half a century passed before the French made a permanent settlement in Canada, it was Jacques Cartier who pointed the way for those who later founded New France.

6. The Sea-Dogs of England

> "And the known coasts fall behind, the plunging ship
> Leaps through untravelled seas, and lo! the grip
> About our hearts of a sudden delighted fear
> As the starry wonders glimmer and grow clear."
>
> MARTIN ARMSTRONG: *The Explorers*

The explorers of Canada followed two routes. The French entered by the gateway of the St. Lawrence valley. The English, on the other hand, came by Hudson Strait and Hudson Bay.

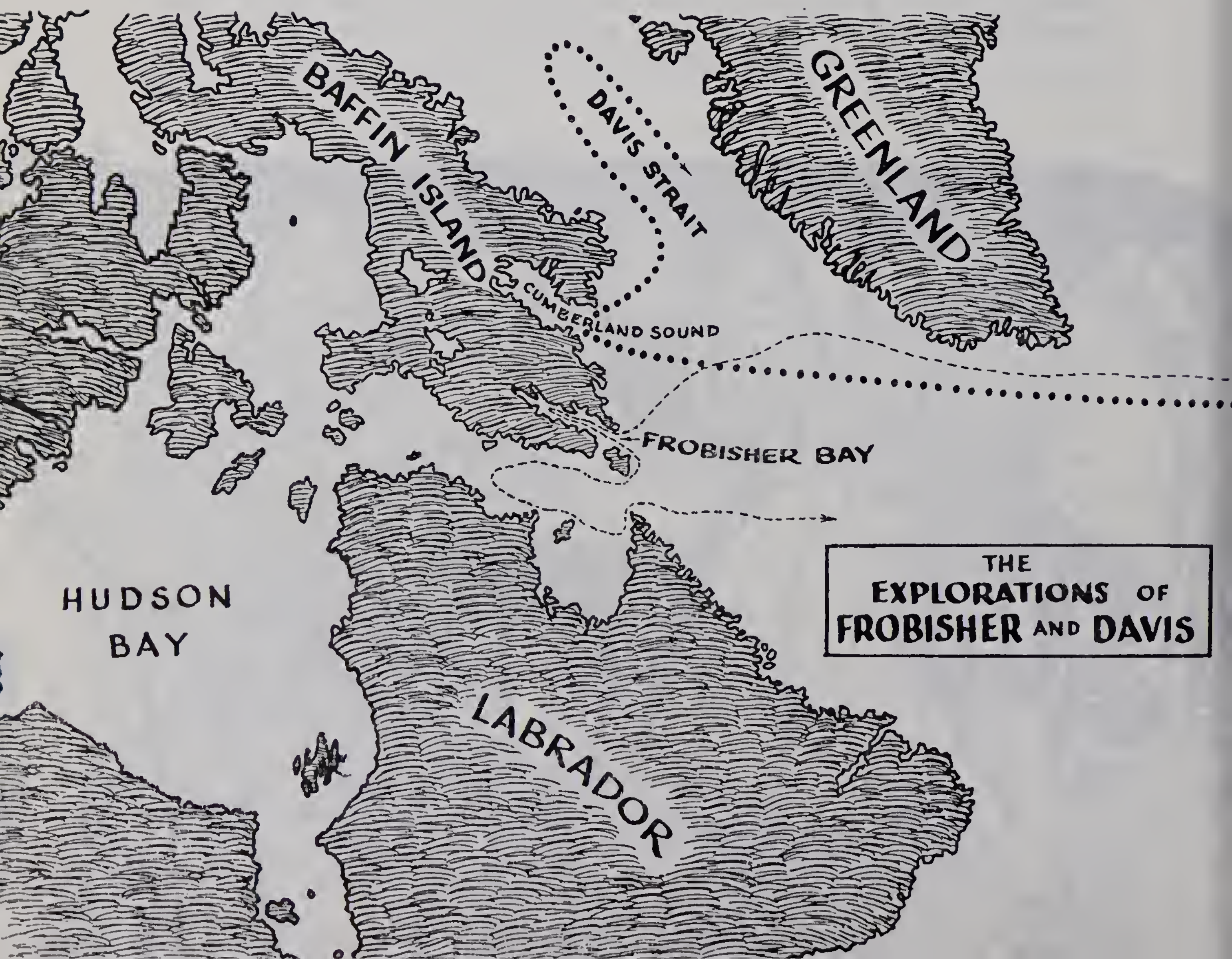
In 1567 Martin Frobisher set forth from England to find a passage north of the new-found continent, and to look for gold and other precious metals in any countries he visited. He sailed across the Atlantic, past Greenland, and into a broad channel. This channel, he thought, must be the strait that joined the Atlantic to the Pacific. To his great disappointment it was not a strait, but a bay, now known as Frobisher Bay, in Baffin Island. He traded with the Eskimos there for sealskins and collected souvenirs to take home. A walrus tusk, supposed at that time to be a cure for disease, he took back as a gift for Queen Elizabeth. He took, too, some black stones with glistening specks in them, which he hoped contained gold.

Though these stones, like the ones Cartier had taken back to France, contained no gold, but only iron pyrites—fool's gold—the rumour spread that Frobisher had dis-

There was great excitement in England when Frobisher brought glistening stones to Queen Elizabeth to show her what he had found in the New World. People hoped that he had discovered a new land so rich in gold that England would soon rival Spain in wealth.

covered gold deposits of fabulous richness. One person declared that Frobisher had found King Solomon's mines. People rushed to invest their money in an expedition to bring back the gold. The Queen put up a thousand pounds. Frobisher sailed again in 1577. His interest was in exploration but the Queen had instructed him to bring back gold. With great difficulty his men dug up several tons of black rock and loaded it into their ships. Since it was already late in the season, Frobisher reluctantly gave orders to sail for home. When the expedition reached England, it was welcomed with great rejoicing, and the cargo of rock was stored carefully under lock and key in the Queen's castles. It was not long, however, before it was realized that the treasure was only fool's gold.

Even though this cargo was worthless, people would not give up the belief that there must be gold in the new land. Were not the Spaniards bringing home great cargoes of gold? We know that Canada is one of the great gold-producing countries of the world, but the early explorers



did not find gold, and, as far as we know, none has been discovered around Frobisher Bay. Nevertheless a third and larger expedition was outfitted in 1578.

This time Frobisher had fifteen ships. Near Frobisher Bay the ships ran into heavy drifting ice and were carried west into Hudson Strait. Frobisher hoped that here, at last, he had found the sought-for North-West Passage. But time had to be spent seeking for the ships which had gone astray in the ice floe, repairing those which had been badly damaged by the ice, and getting a cargo of the worthless rock. The season was late; supplies were low. Frobisher called his captains together and told them that if they agreed he would sail on. But they had had more than enough of Arctic storms and ice floes. When they returned to England, they found that people had turned against them. No one was prepared to finance Frobisher in another expedition to find the North-West Passage.

A few years later, John Davis discovered Cumberland Sound and sailed into Davis Strait between Greenland and Baffin Island. But he discovered neither gold nor a passage to Asia.

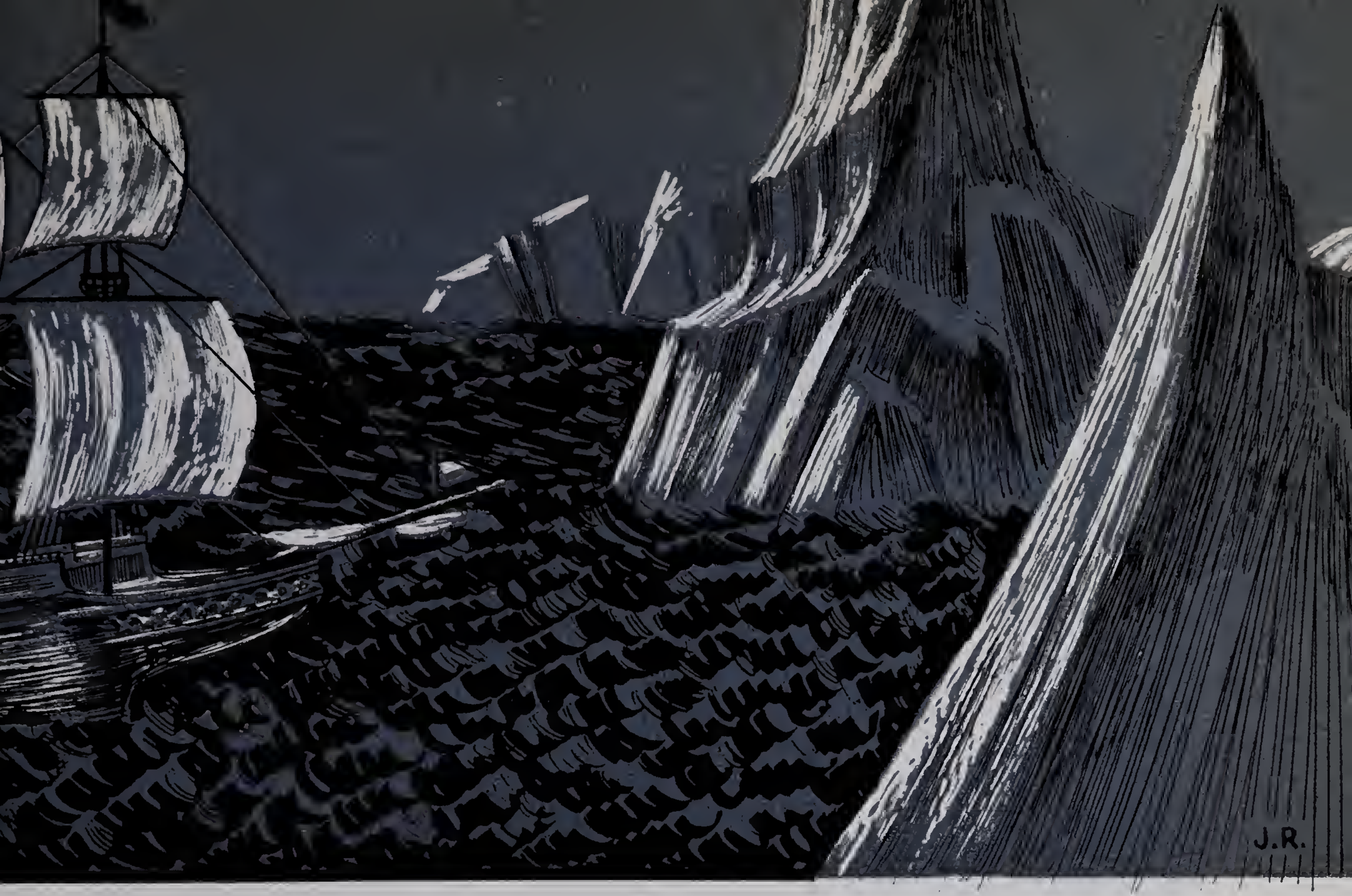
HENRY HUDSON SEARCHES FOR THE NORTH-WEST PASSAGE

Henry Hudson was an experienced sailor who had twice tried to discover a passage to China by travelling north toward Spitzbergen. There is reason to believe that he actually planned to sail across the North Pole, but he was turned back by ice long before he reached that point. In 1609 he set out to find a passage through the continent of America. He entered what is now the harbour of New York and sailed up the mighty river, the Hudson, named for him. When he became convinced that he could not find

By almost miraculous luck, the *Discovery* is able to sail on to Hudson Bay.

a passage *through* the new continent, he decided in 1610 to find out whether a passage to China could not be found *round* the continent to the north. The idea of the North-West Passage—the idea which has since lured so many other brave sailors to their fate—had captured his imagination.

In April, 1610, Henry Hudson set sail in the *Discovery*, with a crew of over twenty men. He sailed first to Iceland, and then made his way past the jutting headlands of Greenland to the entrance of Hudson Strait. By constant use of grappling irons, he made his way through the ice-floes as far as Ungava Bay. Here the *Discovery* had a narrow escape. A great iceberg nearly turned over, and there was an avalanche of falling seas. Hudson's men were sick with fear, and begged him to turn back. Just at that moment a rift appeared in the ice. The rift widened to a channel. There came a gust of wind and the *Discovery* sailed into open water. Beyond this open water there appeared in due course a vast sea—Hudson Bay.



When Henry Hudson sailed into Hudson Bay, he thought that he had reached the Western Sea, and that he had only to sail west until he came to China. As he sailed west and then south, he soon realized that he was in a great land-locked bay. When he reached James Bay, at the southern end of Hudson Bay, the terrible northern winter closed down on him, and he had to set up winter quarters on the bleak and barren shore.

Hudson was a skilful navigator and a brave man but he was not skilful in handling men and winning their loyalty. When spring came and the *Discovery* headed north, trouble was brewing. Supplies were running low and several of the men were sick. The crew wanted to go home to England, and they feared that Hudson would not give up his plans for further exploration. One morning, as Hudson came out of his cabin, he was set upon by three of his crew, and his arms were bound. Then he and his young son, along with the sick men and the ship's carpenter, who refused to turn against his captain, were thrown into a small boat and set adrift in those cruel Arctic waters. When last seen they were following hard after the *Discovery*. Hudson stood in the stern of the boat, shaking his fist at the mutineers. What happened to Hudson and his companions we do not know. "Of all the dark mysteries of the merciless ocean," says Sir W. F. Butler, "no mystery lies wrapt in deeper shadow than that which hangs over the fate of Henry Hudson."

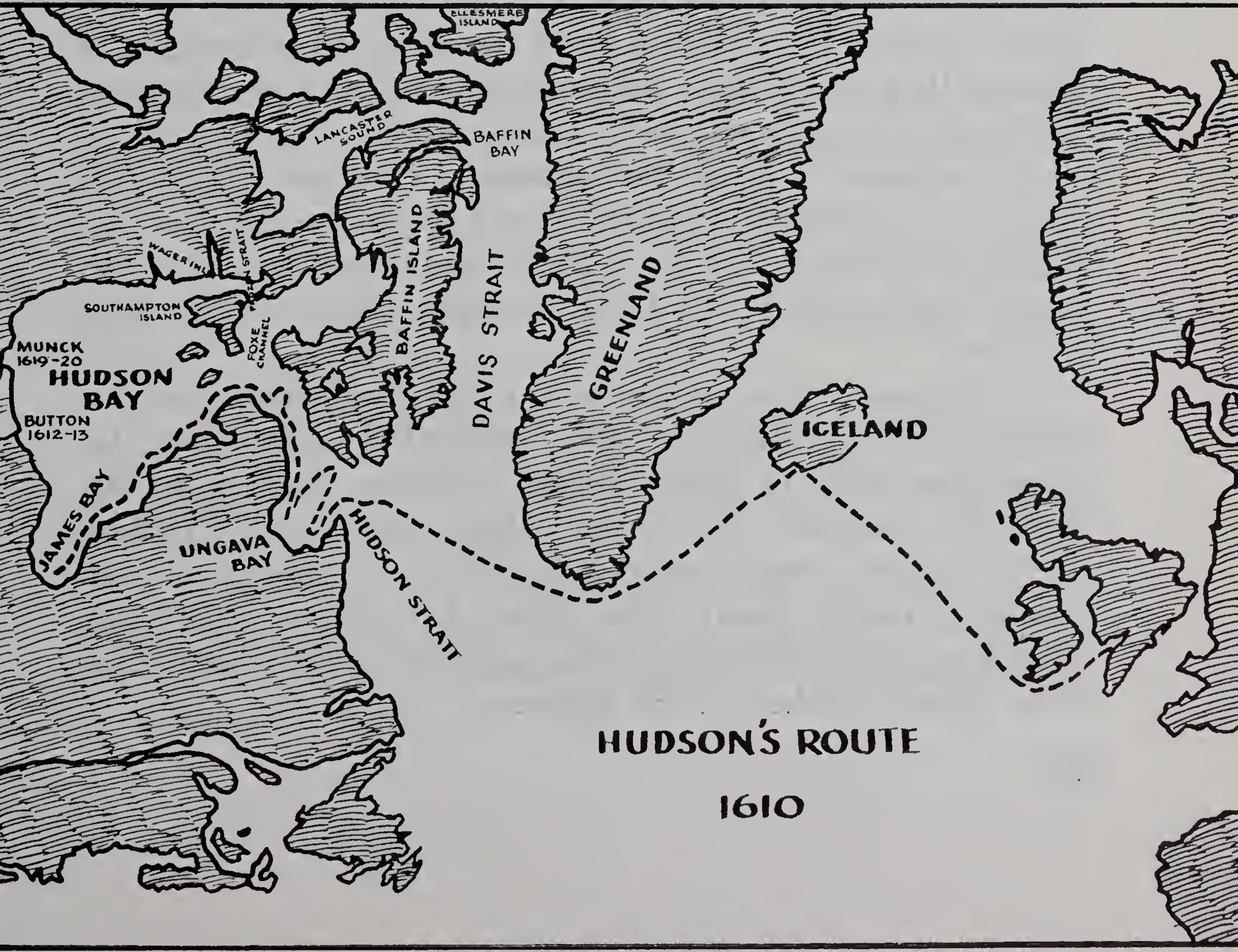
The mutineers reached Hudson Strait, and there most of them were massacred by the Eskimos. The rest succeeded in reaching the Atlantic. When the *Discovery* came at last in sight of Ireland, only three of her crew remained alive to take back to the world the story of Henry Hudson's last and greatest exploit—the discovery of the great inland sea which bears his name.

STILL NO NORTH-WEST PASSAGE

Many more ships and many brave sailors set out from England to seek a north-west passage. So certain were the English that such a route existed that King James I gave Sir Thomas Button a letter to deliver to whatever prince he might meet. Button set out in May, 1612, with two ships, one of which was Hudson's old ship the *Discovery*. He had with him Robert Bylot, who was one of the survivors of Hudson's crew. Bylot had succeeded in convincing the authorities that he was not responsible for the mutiny against Hudson and that the other mutineers had forced him to stay with them.

Button and his men spent the winter at the mouth of the Nelson River, where, even though they had plenty of provisions, they suffered greatly during the long cold winter. Button was a wise leader. He made up a lot of questions about the best course to take in the spring to continue their explorations. In this way he kept his men busy and also made them believe that they were an important part of the enterprise. In the spring they sailed as far north as Wager Inlet before they set sail for home. They saw Indians and Eskimos, snow and icebergs, but no princes of China or Japan.

The *Discovery* must have been a good ship, for it made two more voyages in search of the North-West Passage. Robert Bylot and William Baffin sailed in the sturdy little *Discovery* into Hudson Bay in 1615, and along the coast of Southampton Island to Frozen Strait. Again, in 1616, they sailed along the west coast of Greenland to Ellesmere Island, and then south to Lancaster Sound. They thought Lancaster Sound was a landlocked bay. Actually it is the true entrance to the North-West Passage. Perhaps Bylot and Baffin were fortunate in not realizing it was a strait, for it is less than halfway through the passage from the Atlantic to the Pacific. There is little likelihood that they would have survived a venture beyond it.



HUDSON'S ROUTE

1610

Another courageous explorer, Jens Munck from Denmark, spent a winter at the mouth of the Churchill River, where all but three of the crew died of scurvy. The English sea-captains, Luke Foxe and Thomas James, explored Hudson Bay. These bold sailors made maps; they gave names to straits, islands, capes, and bays. Each made his contribution to the growing body of knowledge about this harsh Arctic area, but none of them found a passage to India.

Many brave men died in the search for the North-West Passage, and many years passed before Roald Amundsen, a bold Norwegian explorer, succeeded in his expedition of 1903-6 in making his way in the *Gjöa* through the Arctic to the Pacific.

For Further Study

At the end of each unit, suggestions are given for further study and activities. Since schools differ very greatly in the amount of supplementary reading material available for research, some of the activities listed below have been suggested because they can be done with only the textbook for reference while others require research in other books. It would not be wise to attempt to do all the activities. They are intended to provide for individual differences and for the special interests of different classes. The list is by no means an exhaustive one. Pupils and teachers will think of many other equally good activities.

1. Prepare a class discussion on how the Indians and the Eskimos by ingenuity and effort succeeded in providing for themselves food, clothing, shelter, weapons, and protection from their enemies. One group might report on the Indians of the eastern forest region—the Hurons, Algonquins, and Iroquois; another group on the tribes of the plains—the Crees, Blackfoot, and Athabascan tribes; another on the tribes of the West Coast; another on the Eskimos.

2. What Indian Reserves are there in your province? Where are they located? How many people live there? What provision is made for health and education on the Reserves?

3. List ten Indian place names, other than those mentioned in the text, one from each province, and find out what each means.

4. Here are some words and phrases that the Indians have contributed to our language: moccasin, mackinaw, Indian file, Indian giver, bury the hatchet. How many can you add to the list?

5. Is there a museum in your town? If there is, visit it and look at the Indian weapons, the Indian costumes, the Eskimo carvings. When you go to the towns and cities which have museums, plan to spend some time there looking at the exhibits.

6. The voyages from Iceland to Greenland and Markland and Vinland were forgotten for many years. Now Greenland and Iceland have become very important to North America. Why?

7. Dramatize the meeting of Bjarni with his father in Greenland. Bjarni would tell about his voyages since he last saw his father, about his disappointment when he reached Iceland, about his crossing of the Atlantic, and about the new lands he saw. His father would tell why he had come to Greenland and speak of the good points of Greenland as a home. Eric and the other settlers would have many questions to ask. You could add a scene with Lief the Lucky, who asks many questions about the new lands Bjarni had seen, and buys Bjarni's boat.

8. Make a mural depicting scenes from the life of Columbus. You might use: Columbus at the Spanish court; the three ships on the stormy Atlantic; the sailors threatening mutiny; Columbus and the natives at San Salvador.

9. Imagine that you were the captain of Magellan's ship the *Victory*, the first ship round the world. Tell the story of the expedition as the captain might have told it to his friends when he returned to Spain.

10. Dramatize the story of John Cabot in three scenes: Scene 1—departure from Bristol; Scene 2—Cabot honoured by the King on his return; Scene 3—the return from the less successful second voyage.

11. Make a mural depicting scenes from Cartier's adventures. You might use: the departure from St. Malo; landing at Gaspé; setting up the cross at Gaspé; Indians in Paris; Cartier arriving at Stadacona; Cartier gazing down the river from Mount Royal; the French building a fort; the winter in the fort; Cartier's ships setting out for home.

12. Scurvy is a disease which results from lack of Vitamin C. Make a list of the foods which modern explorers take with them in order that they will not suffer from scurvy.

13. There were many other brave explorers who sailed in search of new routes and new lands. Find out more about some of them and prepare reports to the class. Here are suggestions for some adventure stories:

The man who was helped by a furious gale; he rounded the Cape of Good Hope without seeing it—Bartholomew Dias;

The man who wrote an account of his travels and had two continents named after him—Amerigo Vespucci;

The man who sailed too far to the west and discovered Brazil—Pedro Cabral.

14. The members of the class who are stamp collectors will already have a number of stamps commemorating events in our history. A committee might undertake to make a collection for the class. Two very useful books about stamps are: *A Hundred Years of Canadian Stamps* by Ralph S. Mason (Ryerson Press), and *Discovering Newfoundland Through Stamps* by Ruth Anderson (School Aids and Textbook Publishing Company). Some of these stamps would be good ones in connection with this unit: the ten-cent 1958 one showing Indians drying furs on a stretcher; the dollar 1953 one with a picture of a Pacific Coast Indian home and totem pole; the ten-cent 1954 stamp showing an Eskimo and a kayak, the four-cent Caribou of 1956; the four-cent Walrus, the two-cent Polar Bear, the three-cent Moose, and the five-cent Beaver of 1953; the four-cent one of 1949 depicting Cabot and the *Mathew*. The Newfoundland 1897 series and the Quebec tercentenary series of 1908 have many interesting stamps connected with Cartier and Champlain. Some of these stamps are already worth many times their face value. Are there any old letters in your attic?

15. One group in the class might undertake to make a Book of Ships, drawing or pasting pictures from magazines of ships such as were used by people who came to America. Start with an Indian canoe and an Eskimo kayak. Then add a Viking ship, Columbus' *Santa Maria*, Cabot's *Mathew*, Cartier's *Grande Hermine*, Frobisher's *Gabriel*, and Hudson's *Discovery.* Later you can add other ships.

II. *The French in Canada*

7. The First Footholds

> "Who is the voyager on these coasts?
> Who is the traveller in these waters?"
>
> ARCHIBALD MACLEISH: *America Was Promises*

Many years passed after Roberval's ill-fated attempt to found a settlement on the St. Lawrence before further ventures were made to bring out colonists. But during those years the new land was not forgotten. Every year fishermen crossed the Atlantic to bring home boatloads of cod. When the fishermen encountered Indians, they often traded knives or axes or cloth for fur which they then took back to France where they could sell it for a good price. Meanwhile the British had been sending expeditions to find a passage to Asia north of America. The French thought of a better plan. "We French," wrote Champlain, "mean to build a settlement in New France to make exploration easier by beginning our voyages on that side of the ocean."

In order to finance these explorations, the King of France granted complete control of the fur trade first to one man and then to another. This meant that the fishermen would no longer be allowed to trade in furs. They did not like this but there was not much they could do about it.

SABLE ISLAND

In 1598 the Marquis de la Roche, to whom the King had given control of the fur trade in America, undertook to establish a settlement. He landed a group, mostly convicts, on the barren shores of Sable Island. A storm kept him from coming back to look after his colony and it was not until five years later that a ship from France made its way across the Atlantic to the unhappy men marooned on the desolate island. Eleven who had survived the hardships of the ill-fated adventure were taken back to France.

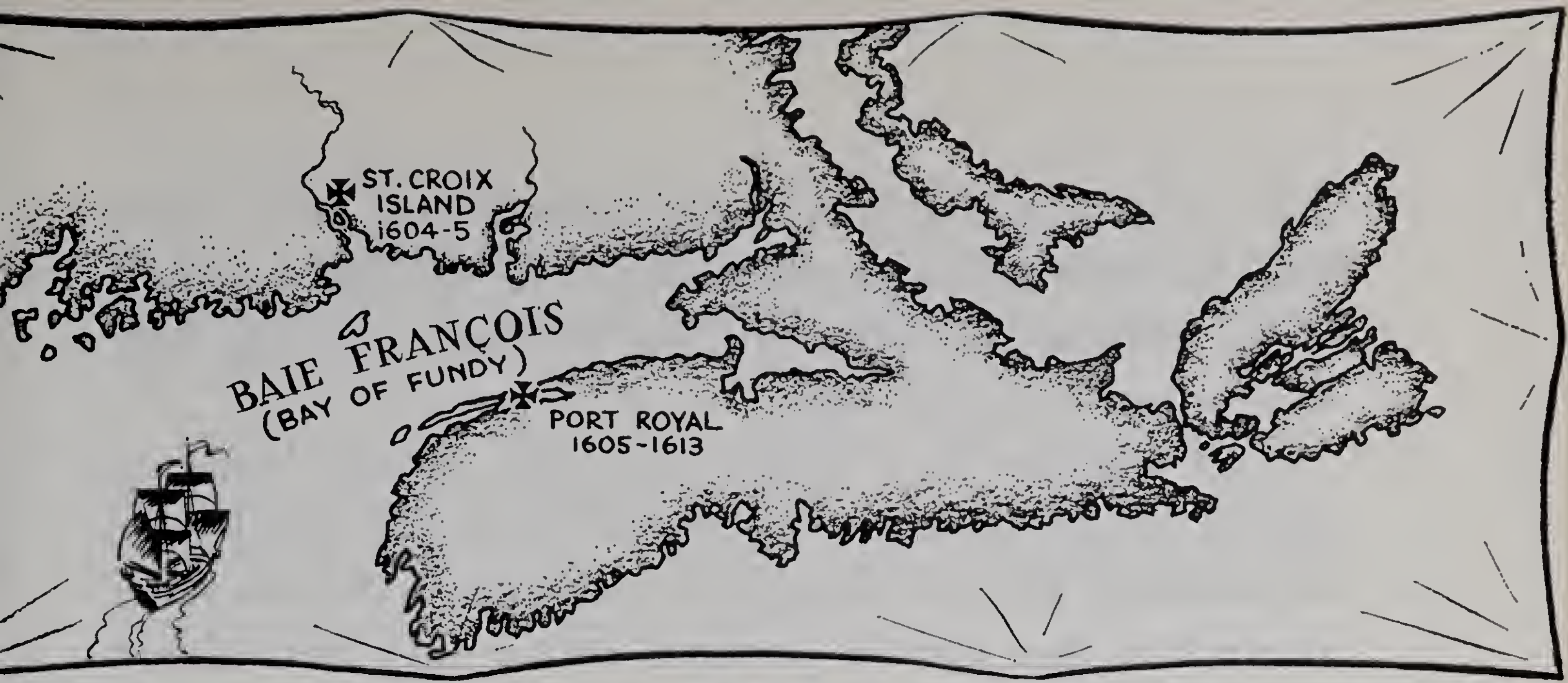
To-day no one lives on Sable Island except the men who look after the lighthouses and the lifeboats which are kept there for the rescue of shipwrecked sailors. Sable Island has been called "the graveyard of the Atlantic" because so many ships have been wrecked near its shores.

TADOUSSAC

In 1599 two merchants, Pontgravé and Chauvin, were given a monopoly of the fur trade on the St. Lawrence on condition that they bring out fifty colonists a year. They established a post at Tadoussac, at the mouth of the Saguenay River. Sixteen men were left there in the autumn of 1600 to trade furs with the Indians. When Chauvin came back the next spring, the post was deserted. No one knows what happened to the men.

CHAMPLAIN'S FIRST VISIT TO THE ST. LAWRENCE

On his next trip Pontgravé was accompanied by Samuel de Champlain, who was an explorer and geographer. Pontgravé undertook to look after the fur trade. Champlain was to explore and to write the report on their venture.



Early settlements in Canada were in the Maritimes.

When Champlain made his way up the St. Lawrence as far as the Lachine Rapids, he developed a burning ambition to explore farther and to establish a settlement in this new land.

DE MONTS IN ACADIA

In 1604 Sieur de Monts was given a monopoly of the fur trade along the Atlantic Coast. With de Monts came Champlain. They chose the island of St. Croix, where the St. Croix River enters the Bay of Fundy, for their first settlement. Since both men had been soldiers it was natural for them to choose a site which could be defended against attack. Buildings were constructed, gardens prepared, and seeds planted. But St. Croix proved a poor choice. The soil was not good, and as there was little rain that summer, the gardens were not a success. Since there was no fresh water on the island, the unfortunate settlers had to row over to the mainland for fresh water. Champlain and de Monts had no idea how cold the winters were in this country, and they found there was not enough wood for fuel on the island. As the gardens had not provided a supply of fresh vegetables, the colonists had little food but salt meat. Scurvy broke out. Champlain and de Monts did not know about the Indian remedy for scurvy made from the bark and buds of the spruce. By spring nearly half of the colonists had died and the rest were so weak they were scarcely able to walk.

Next summer they moved the little colony, buildings and all, across the Bay of Fundy to Port Royal, now known as Annapolis Royal. Though the adventurers did not suffer as much as they had the previous winter, they were almost ready to give up when supply ships arrived from France the next spring. The newcomers urged them to try again. In the fertile soil of the Annapolis Valley, now famed for its apple orchards, their gardens were more successful than at St. Croix. During the winter, Champlain, hoping to ward off scurvy by exercise and good food, organized the Order of Good Cheer. Each man in turn was chief steward, responsible for the meals for that day. There was keen rivalry to determine who would provide the best food. This combination of good food, exercise, and merriment was the best possible defence against scurvy.

Marc Lescarbot, in a book about the Port Royal colony, wrote, "There was no one who, two days before his turn came, failed to go hunting or fishing, and to bring back some delicacy in addition to our ordinary fare. So well was this carried out that never at breakfast did we lack some savoury meat of flesh or fish, and still less at our midday or evening meals . . . We had an abundance of game, such as ducks, bustards, grey and white geese, partridges, larks and other birds; moreover moose, caribou, beaver, bear, rabbits, wild-cats, raccoons and other animals." Lescarbot declared that of all the meats they had in France none was "so tender as moose-meat and nothing so delicate as beaver's tail".

Champlain made several expeditions along the coast, going as far south as Cape Cod. He made such careful maps that his exact course may be followed to-day without any difficulty.

Unfortunately, the next summer de Monts lost his monopoly of the fur trade and the colony was abandoned. Recently the fort at Port Royal has been rebuilt and every year thousands of tourists visit it.

8. The Founder of New France

> "The great discoverer came,
> Finding other Indies than he guessed
> To reward his daring quest,
> And fill the wonder-volume of Romance—
> The sailor of little Brouage, the founder of New France,
> Sturdy, sagacious, plain,
> Samuel de Champlain."
>
> Bliss Carman: *Champlain*

On April 14, 1608, the crew of the sailing vessel, *Don de Dieu,* weighed anchor and set sail from the harbour of Honfleur, on the west coast of France, bound for "the great river of Canada". On board was Samuel de Champlain, returning to the new land, resolved to establish a trading-post on the banks of the St. Lawrence. This trading-post was destined to become the first permanent settlement on Canadian soil.

At this time Champlain was about forty years of age. He had led a most daring and adventurous life. First he served as a soldier. When the wars were over, he had gone to sea, making several voyages to the New World. He visited the West Indies and Mexico, and he suggested —three centuries before it came to pass—the building of the Panama Canal. He had been with Pontgravé on the St. Lawrence and there he had viewed the land which was to be the scene of his life work. He had been with de Monts in Acadia. In France he had won renown for the careful maps he had made of the countries he had visited and for the interesting books he had written about his travels.

The *Don de Dieu* made an uneventful voyage. Early in June it rounded the Point of All Devils which guards the entrance to the harbour of Tadoussac. Here Champlain met his friend and associate, Pontgravé. They decided to establish their trading-post farther up the river. After building a small ship suitable for river travel, Champlain set off upstream. Three days later he reached the narrows at Quebec.

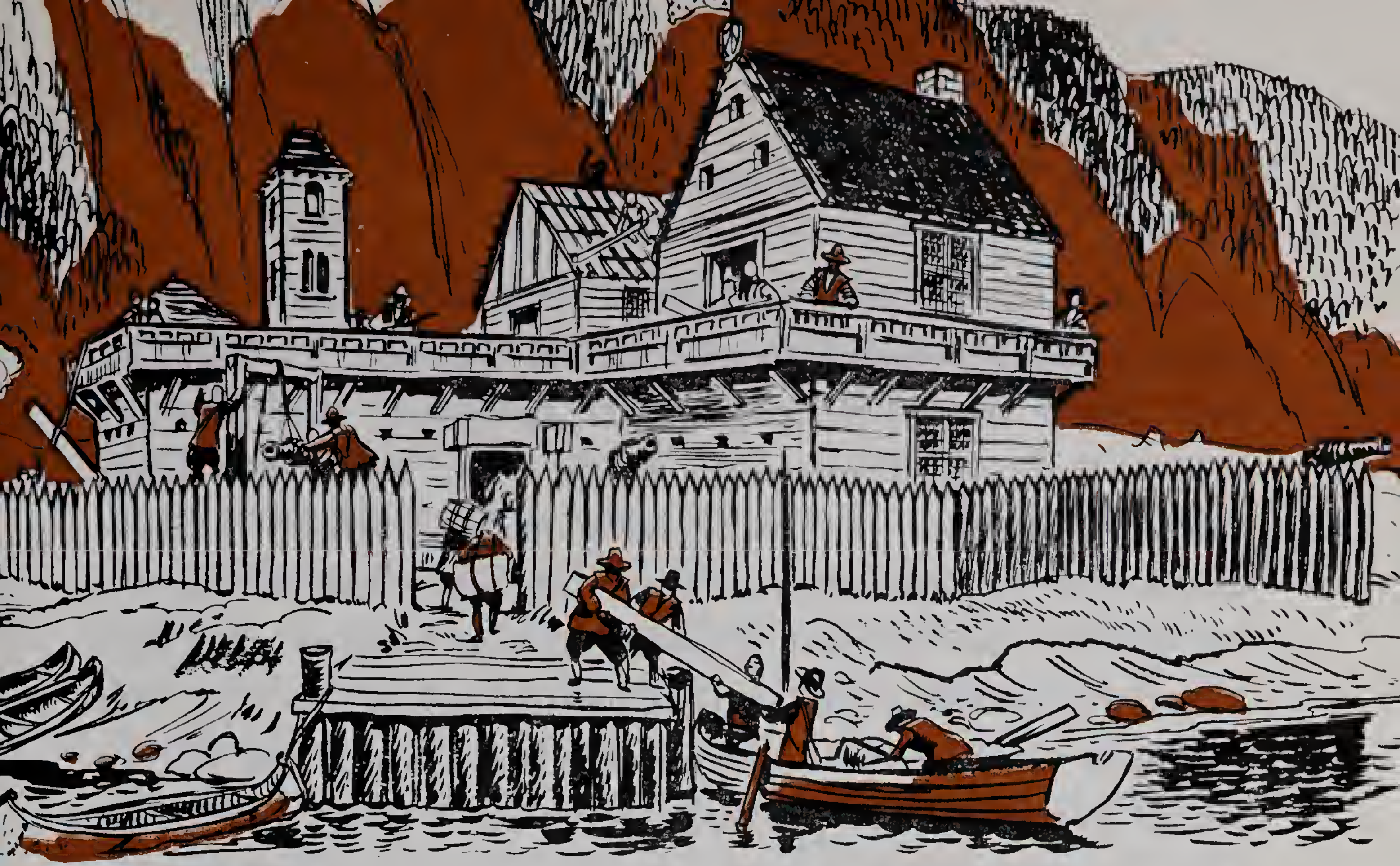
THE FOUNDING OF QUEBEC

"Here," wrote Champlain in his narrative, "I searched for a place suitable for a settlement; but I could find none more convenient or better suited than the point of Quebec, so called by the savages."

Champlain chose wisely. Quebec is one of the world's great natural fortresses.

On the site of what is to-day the market place of the Lower Town of Quebec, Champlain's men cut a clearing. There they built his trading-post which he called his *Habitation*. A plot nearby was laid out as a garden.

Many were the trials that attended the founding of the infant colony. Even while the *Habitation* was being built, there was a conspiracy against Champlain. Only his coolness and resourcefulness prevented mutiny. The leader of the conspiracy was put to death and his head displayed on a spike from the highest roof, as a warning to anyone who might be inclined to follow his example. Henceforth Champlain had no more trouble with mutineers.



This illustration is copied from the sketch Champlain made of his *Habitation*, as he called it. There were three log buildings surrounded by a strong wall made of logs stuck upright in the ground. Round the wall there was a moat or trench. At second-storey level the wall of the gallery contained loopholes through which the defenders could fire at any enemy who might attack them.

The winter was long and cold, colder even than at St. Croix. When the first ship arrived from France in the spring, only eight of the twenty-eight men who had gone to Quebec were alive. And the eight were very weak and ill.

A man of less dauntless courage than Champlain might have given up. But not Champlain. He made arrangements to bring out more colonists. In the years that followed, he met many discouragements. The French merchants who were backing him did not make any real attempt to provide him with settlers. They were interested in making money in the fur trade, not in establishing settlements in this far-away land. It was not easy to persuade settlers to come to a land where so many died each winter. But Champlain believed in Canada and he would not accept defeat. The few colonists who came to Canada came because he persuaded them to join him in his bold venture.

LOUIS HEBERT—THE FIRST FARMER IN NEW FRANCE

Louis Hébert, who had been with Champlain at Port Royal, was persuaded to join him in Quebec. In Paris he had been an apothecary—half druggist, half doctor. Apothecaries in those days made their medicines from herbs, and from his work with herbs, Hébert became interested in agriculture. When he came with his family to Quebec he cleared a farm on the heights of Cape Diamond and there he settled for the rest of his life. His children married the children of other settlers and to-day many people of the province of Quebec state with pride that they are descendants of Louis Hébert, the first farmer in Canada.

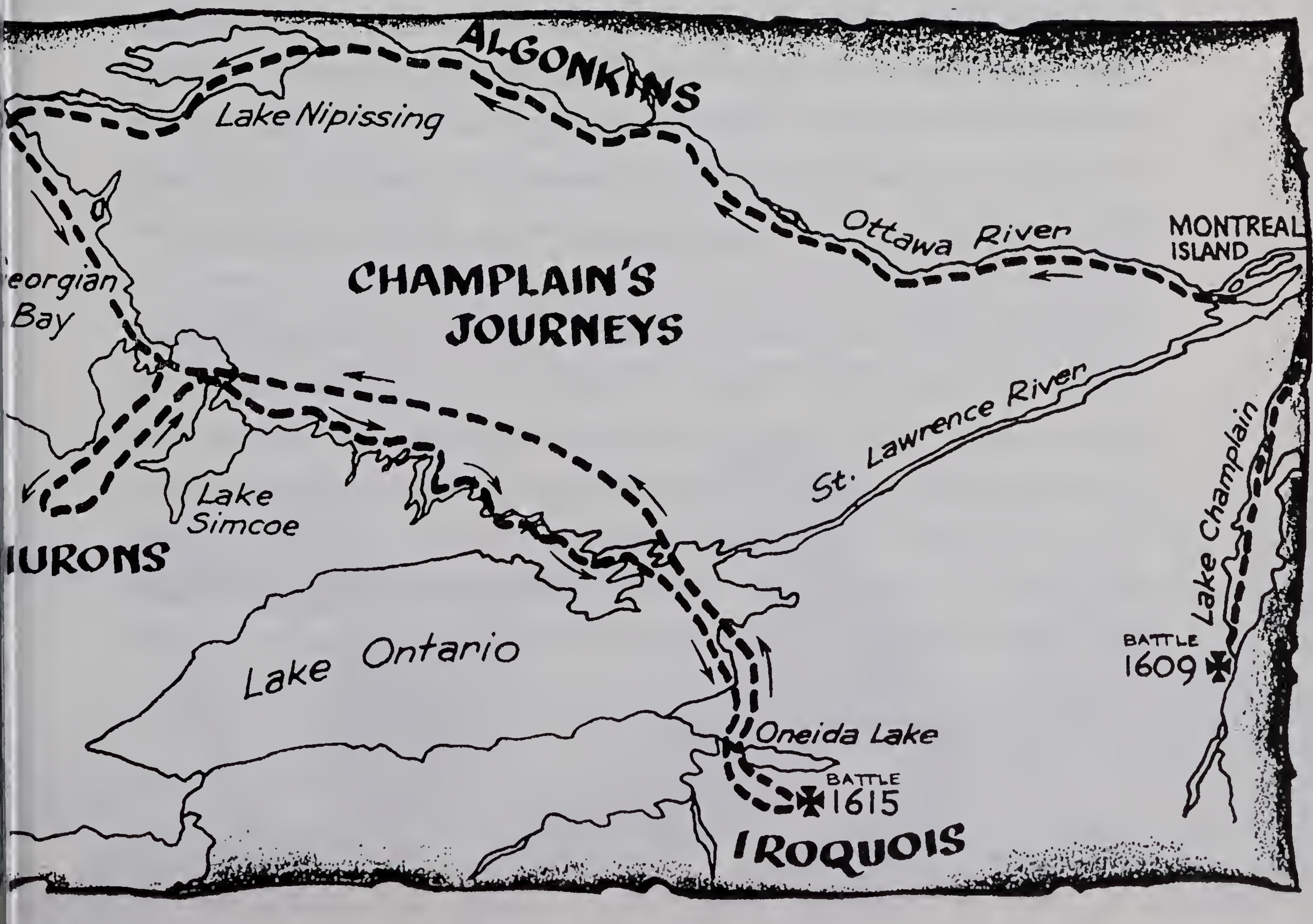
CHAMPLAIN'S EXPLORATIONS

At heart an explorer, and by training a geographer, Champlain was not content merely to found a centre for settlement and trade. The *Habitation* at Quebec was hardly completed when he set out to explore the unknown country to the west. He realized that he must build up a profitable trade in furs to keep the French merchants willing to support his enterprise. Then, too, there was always the hope that he might discover the pathway to the Western Sea which washed the shores of Asia.

He made three notable journeys into the interior. In 1609 he pushed up the valley of the Richelieu River and discovered Lake Champlain. Here he and his Indian allies came into conflict with the Iroquois, the strongest and most warlike of all the Indian tribes. This encounter unfortunately earned for the French the undying hatred of the Iroquois, and for many years their war-parties threatened the little French colony. Champlain, of course, could hardly have foreseen this result, and even if he had, there was no other course he could have taken. The Indians would not have understood a man who did not take sides. He won the support of the Indians who lived near his settlements. It was, however, unfortunate for the French that their Indian allies were not as strong as the Iroquois.

In 1613 Champlain went up the Ottawa River as far as Morrison Island, beyond the present site of the city of Ottawa. In 1615 he went up the Ottawa again and crossed over to Georgian Bay by way of Lake Nipissing and the French River. He spent the winter on the south shore of the Bay in the villages of the Huron Indians. In the spring he went with a war-party of the Hurons by way of Lake Simcoe and across Lake Ontario into what is now the northern part of New York State. This trip took him right into the Iroquois country and once more he helped his allies, the Hurons, against their deadly enemy, the Iroquois.

Before the Pilgrim Fathers had landed on Plymouth Rock, Champlain had travelled in canoe and on foot



thousands of miles through the wilderness of North America. He had seen with his own eyes more of eastern Canada than any but a favoured few see even in these days of railways, steamships, and motor cars.

Champlain's exploring days ended in 1616. By this time he was nearly fifty years old. Doubtless he realized that he was no longer equal to the hardships of exploring and the discomfort of life among the Indians. Henceforth he devoted his energy to building up the colony at Quebec. In this he met with heart-breaking disappointments. The colony grew very slowly. By 1627 the total population, men, women and children, was only sixty-five.

QUEBEC TAKEN BY THE ENGLISH

The severest blow was still to come. There were merchants in London who wanted a chance at the rich fur trade on the St. Lawrence. France and England were at war. This was their opportunity. In the spring of 1628 they sent an expedition under David Kirke to seize Quebec.

About the same time eighteen ships carrying settlers and supplies set out from France for Quebec. They crossed the Atlantic safely and were sailing up the broad stretches of the St. Lawrence when the English attacked them. Only one French ship escaped. All the others were sunk or captured.

When Kirke appeared before Quebec, Champlain refused to surrender. Kirke decided it would be easier to starve the French out than to take Quebec by storm. His men seized the cattle in the fields and destroyed the crops. By July, 1629, the French were so close to starvation that they had to surrender. With a sad heart Champlain saw the cross of St. George replace the lilies of France on the flagpole. The English sent Champlain and his little band of half-starved colonists back to France. Only five families, the surgeon, and a few clerks remained. It must have seemed to Champlain that his life work lay in ruins.

QUEBEC RESTORED TO FRANCE

The treaty which ended the war gave Canada back to France. In 1633 Champlain sailed once more for Quebec to take possession in the name of the King of France.

When he reached New France Champlain found that the English had burned the *Habitation* to the ground. Undaunted by this disaster, Champlain set to work to build a new and larger *Habitation* and also a mission house, larger and better than any building that had been built in the first settlement. To commemorate the recovery of Quebec, Champlain built the Church of Our Lady of the Recovery.

During the autumn of 1635 he fell ill, and on Christmas day he passed away. Settlers and Indians mourned together the loss of their great leader. He was buried with all the respect and ceremony the colony could command in the little church he had built. A few years later the church was destroyed by fire and to-day no one knows for certain just what spot in the city of Quebec covers the body of the heroic founder of New France.

As his ship neared Quebec, Champlain looked eagerly to catch the first glimpse of his *Habitation*. Imagine his grief when he saw that it had been destroyed! It had been his home, his trading-post, the symbol of his work in New France. "Of that poor settlement," wrote a Jesuit father who came with him, "nothing is now to be seen but the ruins of its bare walls."

9. The Watch-Dog of Ville-Marie

> "A good dog is so much a nobler beast than an indifferent man that one sometimes gladly exchanges the society of one for that of the other."
>
> SIR WILLIAM BUTLER: *The Wild North Land*

THE FOUNDING OF VILLE-MARIE

In 1642 a second settlement was established, the little fort and mission station of Ville-Marie, on the site of the present city of Montreal. A group of enthusiastic priests, nuns, and laymen in France had formed a foreign missionary society, known as the "Association for the Conversion of the Savages at Montreal", and they had collected a large sum of money to found a mission and hospital on the island of Montreal. A brave and chivalrous soldier, the Sieur de Maisonneuve, was chosen as leader of this bold enterprise.

In the summer of 1641 Maisonneuve arrived in Quebec with fifty men and four women, prepared to proceed with the missionary venture. At Quebec he met with some discouragement. The governor of Quebec tried to persuade him to abandon his project. There were, he said, no Indians on the island of Montreal, and the island was in a most exposed position, directly in the path of the Iroquois raiders who had already begun to threaten the life of New France. But Maisonneuve could not be turned aside. He said that he would go to Montreal even "if every tree on that island were changed to an Iroquois".

The first thing Maisonneuve and his companions did when they reached their goal on May 18th, 1642, was to set up an altar. One of the priests preached a sermon, in which he said, "You are a grain of mustard seed that shall rise and grow till its branches overshadow the earth. You are few, but your work is the work of God. His smile is upon you, and your children shall fill the land."

After calling for God's blessing on their enterprise, the little band began to build a small fort surrounded by a palisade of pointed stakes.

DANGER THREATENS VILLE-MARIE

For several months the little settlement was undisturbed. The nuns and nursing sisters could stroll through the woods near the fort without fear of attack. The priests and settlers were not afraid to go hunting or fishing. But one day a party of friendly Algonquins, closely pursued by the fierce Iroquois, fled for refuge to the fort. Once the Iroquois learned of its existence, Ville-Marie had no peace. The Iroquois, armed with guns obtained from the Dutch traders on the Hudson River, infested the neighbourhood, and there were no more pleasant strolls in the woods, no more care-free excursions for hunting or fishing. When the defenders of the fort went into the forest, they marched in a body, carrying their guns. Anyone who went outside the palisade alone courted almost certain death. Sometimes a single Iroquois warrior would lie hidden for days, without sleep and almost without food, behind a fallen tree or in a dense thicket, waiting patiently for some rash straggler. Sometimes war-parties of a hundred or more lay in ambush in the forest, and tried to lure the garrison of the fort to their doom. The Iroquois warriors seldom attacked a fortified place, but, short of this, they did all in their power to harass the defenders of the little settlement.

The resourceful Maisonneuve conceived the idea of using watch-dogs to act as scouts and sentinels. He sent to France for some hunting dogs, and in course of time several of these were landed at Ville-Marie. One of these dogs was named Pilotte. Pilotte was the mother of a large and noisy family, and probably more was expected of her puppies, when they should grow up, than was expected of her. But it was not long before she showed a keen appreciation of the situation, and developed a genius for scouting which astonished Maisonneuve and his men. She became, in fact, a mainstay of the defence. Every morning after breakfast she would start out, followed by her brood, and make a circuit of the woods and fields surrounding the fort. If one of her pups lagged behind, she reminded him of what was expected of a good scout by administering a sharp bite on the ear or on the leg, and if one of them skulked and ran home, she punished him in

Every morning Pilotte went on a scouting expedition.

the same manner on her return. Her scent for the enemy was unerring. If any of the Iroquois were in the neighbourhood, she never failed to discover their presence. As soon as she scented them she barked furiously, and made at once for the fort, followed by her offspring in full cry. Doubtless many an Iroquois longed to plant an arrow in her hide, but Pilotte was too clever and careful a scout to give anyone a chance to do so.

Pilotte seems, indeed, to have been endowed with almost human intelligence. She must have realized that it was her duty to warn the garrison at Ville-Marie of the presence of the Iroquois, and she performed that duty with a courage and fidelity that entitles her to be regarded as one of the heroines of Canadian history. At the same time, it is clear that she was a dog like other dogs. The Jesuit father who tells us most about her states, with quaint humour, that, while scouting for Iroquois was her duty, "her natural inclination was for hunting squirrels".

Maisonneuve was brave but he was a man who knew how to temper valour with discretion. He knew that his men were not good woodsmen, and that they would almost certainly be worsted in an encounter with the Iroquois in the forest. When Pilotte sounded the alarm, he gathered his men into the fort, and stood on the defensive. After a time this policy began to tell on the nerves of the defenders. When his men began to accuse him of cowardice, Maisonneuve realized that, if he was to keep the confidence of his followers, he must take action. In the spring of 1644, therefore, he decided to sally forth at the first favourable opportunity, and give battle to the Iroquois in the forest.

He did not have long to wait. One March morning, Pilotte was heard barking in the woods east of the fort. In a few moments she and her puppies broke into view,

Maisonneuve shoots the Indian chief.

running at full speed over the clearing, which was still covered with deep snow. Maisonneuve immediately gave the order to prepare for a sally.

The French had snowshoes enough for thirty, so, leaving the others to defend the fort, Maisonneuve led his thirty best fighters across the clearing and into the forest. Here all was as silent as the grave. Suddenly, however, the Iroquois war-cry rose on the air, and the thirty Frenchmen were set upon by three times their number. The situation was critical. Maisonneuve ordered his men to take shelter behind trees and stumps, where for a time they were able to hold their ground. Soon numbers began to tell. Three of the Frenchmen were killed; several of them were wounded; they were running short of ammunition.

Maisonneuve ordered a retreat, and while his men retired he covered their withdrawal. Alone, a pistol in each hand, he faced a hundred blood-thirsty Iroquois. He might easily have been shot down, but the Iroquois chief, recognizing him as the commander of the French, was determined to take him alive. His followers held back to give him his opportunity. As the chief sprang forward, Maisonneuve snapped his pistol at him. It missed fire. He pulled the trigger of the other pistol, and the Iroquois chief fell dead in his tracks.

Then happened a curious thing, not uncommon in Indian warfare. The Iroquois, in their desire to rescue the body of their chief, seemed to ignore the dauntless Frenchman who faced them. Maisonneuve was able to regain the fort in safety. As he entered the gates, it is possible (though this is purely imagination) that he was greeted by Pilotte, wagging her tail, as if to say, "I am glad you are back safely, but now perhaps you will realize what it means to go scouting after the Iroquois in the forest." However this may be, after this Pilotte disappears from view. There is evidence that in the Indian troubles of three years later she was no longer scouring the woods about Ville-Marie. She may have died a natural death at the fort, for dogs do not live long, or she may have perished in the forest, transfixed by an Iroquois arrow. We do not know how she came to her end, for history seldom records the fate of man's four-footed friends. But nothing can rob her of the proud title of the Watch-dog of Ville-Marie.

The little mission station survived the attacks of the Iroquois, and to-day the proud and prosperous city of Montreal stands where once stood Ville-Marie. Maisonneuve had chosen a good site, in the heart of the fertile St. Lawrence plain, near where the Ottawa and the Richelieu Rivers flow into the St. Lawrence.

10. For God and Church

"Where was the source
Of his strength, the home of his courage that topped the best
Of their braves and even out-fabled the lore of their legends?"
EDWIN J. PRATT: *Brébeuf and his Brethren*

Champlain had not been long in Quebec before he had missionaries brought out, for one of his fondest dreams was that the Indians might be converted to Christianity. The task of carrying the gospel into the Huron country was entrusted to the Jesuits, a strong and powerful order of clergy. The story of their missions is a proud and glorious page in the history of Canada. They endured incredible hardships and many of them sacrificed their lives in their heroic attempt to save the souls of the Indians.

It was a long and difficult journey from Quebec up to the Huron country of Georgian Bay. The missionaries had to carry their food, their clothing, and everything they needed for their chapels. They had to endure the poor food, the dirt and smells of the Indian camps, the hordes of black flies and mosquitoes. It was discouraging work trying to convert the Hurons. Whenever anything went wrong—an outbreak of smallpox, a drought, a heavy snowfall—the priests were blamed for it. They never knew when the Indians might turn against them and kill them. In time, however, by patience and steady toil, they won converts and established missions in some of the villages. None of these missions became permanent settlements like Ville-Marie, for a few years after they were built, the Hurons were attacked by the Iroquois and their villages destroyed.

For their headquarters the Jesuits chose a spot at the mouth of the River Wye, about a mile away from the site of the present town of Midland. There in 1649 they built a strong fort with stone walls. Within the walls they built a chapel, a hospital, and living-quarters for the missionaries and the workmen who were with them. At one time there was space for sixty people. The mission was called Ste. Marie and from it the Jesuits went out in pairs to work among the Hurons.

THE IROQUOIS ATTACK

One morning in March, 1649, the workers at Ste. Marie saw smoke and flame rising from the little village of St. Louis, a mile away. They knew what this fire meant. For many months Iroquois war-parties had been lurking in the neighbourhood. The summer before, one of these Iroquois parties had raided St. Joseph, the southernmost of the Huron villages, where Father Daniel had been stationed. Alone he had waited at the foot of the altar of the little church he had built. The savage Iroquois had murdered the gentle priest and burned the church.

When the Huron Indians learned that the Iroquois were coming to attack St. Louis, they begged Father Brébeuf and Father Lalemant to flee to Ste. Marie, where the Indian women and children had taken refuge. The brave priests refused to go. Ten years before, Brébeuf had made a vow that he would not shrink from death. Even the Iroquois were impressed by his courage under torture.

When the Iroquois attacked St. Louis, they took Father Brébeuf and Father Lalemant captive. For four hours they tortured Brébeuf, pouring boiling water over his head, and throwing a necklace of red-hot tomahawks about his neck. But no cry of pain came from the stalwart priest. No Indian brave ever met the tortures of the enemy with more iron courage than he. For fourteen hours they tortured the gentle Father Lalemant, until death released him from his agony.

THE IROQUOIS FORCE THE JESUITS TO ABANDON THE MISSIONS

One by one the Huron villages were wiped out. By the summer of 1649, the Jesuit fathers decided it would be wise to abandon Ste. Marie and take refuge with the remnant of their flock on Christian Island in Georgian Bay. They set fire to the residence of Ste. Marie before they left. There at the mouth of the little River Wye, visitors may still find the foundations of the building. It is perhaps the oldest stone ruin on the continent of North America.

On Christian Island they built a stone shelter, the remains of which may still be seen. After a winter there, the missionaries realized that the island could not provide food for so many people. Many of the Hurons returned

This shrine is visited yearly by thousands of people from every part of the world.

to the mainland, where they were massacred by the ruthless Iroquois. "My pen," wrote the Father Superior of the mission, "has no ink black enough to describe the fury of the Iroquois."

In the summer of 1650 the Jesuits had no choice but to abandon the missions. They returned to Quebec. Several hundred of the Hurons went with the missionaries and found new homes first on the Island of Orleans and later at Lorette. Others escaped the Iroquois and went to the area near Detroit, where they came to be known as the Wyandots. Of the powerful Huron Nation, which in 1639 had numbered twenty thousand souls, no other trace remained. Of the Huron missions only a few ruins, a few stones and metal relics, and the memory of a noble and heroic missionary venture have survived.

A church and a martyr's shrine have been built near the site of Ste. Marie, on the River Wye, near the town of Midland. The actual site of the fort and settlement of Ste. Marie was excavated by Wilfred Jury of the University of Western Ontario. The foundations of the original buildings and the walls of the fort and of the church were laid bare. The excavators discovered, among other things, the cemeteries, and the system the priests devised of supplying water underground in case of siege.

11. The Heroes of the Long Sault

> "Beside the dark Utawa's stream, two hundred years ago,
> A wondrous feat of arms was wrought, which all the
> world should know."
>
> George Murray: *How Canada was Saved*

In the spring of the year 1660, a famous fur-trader, named Pierre Radisson, was coming down the Ottawa River toward Montreal with his winter's cargo of furs. As he neared the head of the long rapids some fifty miles north-west of the island of Montreal, his scouts brought word that there was an Iroquois camp at the foot of the rapids. Leaving half his men to guard his canoes, Radisson led the rest overland to surprise their enemies. They found a palisade defended by a few Iroquois. As the war-whoop of Radisson's Indians rose in the air, the defenders of the fort fled in panic, and most of them escaped.

When Radisson and his Indian allies swarmed into the enclosure, their eyes met a sight which must have harrowed their souls. From the pickets of the palisade there dangled the bleeding scalps of both Indians and white men. Here and there in the palisade were gaping holes. Every tree in sight was spattered with bullet holes. By the river were the charred bones of prisoners who had been burnt at the stake. In the middle of the fort was a hole in the ground from which its hard-pressed defenders must have scooped up the muddy water to quench the raging thirst that parched their mouths.

Radisson had stumbled on the scene of one of the most heroic exploits in the history of Canada, the glorious stand of the seventeen young "heroes of the Long Sault" who laid down their lives to save New France.

DOLLARD AND HIS COMPANIONS SET FORTH TO HALT THE IROQUOIS

This is their story. In the early spring of 1660 word had reached Montreal that the Iroquois were on the war-path, and that large numbers of them had wintered up the Ottawa not far away. It was certain that Montreal would be the first object of their attack. A number of the young men of Montreal came to the conclusion that the best way of warding off the Iroquois onslaught was to go out to meet it—to carry the war into the enemy's country, and to strike the first blow. The leader of these young men was a youth of gentle birth, named Adam Dollard, who had settled in Montreal only about eighteen months before. He persuaded sixteen other young men, most of them still in their twenties, to volunteer with him, and he obtained the permission of Maisonneuve to lead them on a forlorn hope up the Ottawa.

Among those who bade the heroic young men farewell, there must have been many whose eyes were dim with tears and shining with pride, for there was not a child in the settlement who did not know the terrors which the young men were going out to face. Most of his companions, like Dollard, were recent immigrants from France, unskilled in forest warfare, and unfamiliar with the handling of birch-bark canoes. For fully a week they strove in vain to pass the swift current of Ste. Anne's, at the western end of the island of Montreal. At length they made the passage and paddled up the Ottawa.

THEY TAKE THEIR STAND

At the lower end of the Long Sault—a series of rapids which interrupts navigation on the Ottawa for fifteen miles—they stopped. Here they found a rough log fort which an Algonquin war-party had built the year before. In it they took their stand, and here, with a small party of

Dollard and his companions knew there was little hope that they would ever return to their homes. In a calm and business-like manner they made their wills. Together the heroic young volunteers went to the little chapel of the Hôtel-Dieu to confess their sins and to receive the Blessed Sacrament.

forty-four friendly Indians who had joined them, they waited for the Iroquois.

They had not long to wait. Two days later some Iroquois canoes came dancing down the rapids. Dollard and his men took cover, and as the canoes neared the shore they opened fire. The canoes were upset, and most of their occupants were drowned or shot. But at least one of the Iroquois escaped to the opposite shore, and succeeded in carrying news of the encounter to the main body of the Iroquois up the river. In a short time, two hundred Iroquois warriors, thirsting for revenge, came swarming down the Long Sault. Dollard and his men took refuge in the palisade, and only by volley after volley did the French succeed in beating off the first Iroquois attack.

THEY FOUGHT A GOOD FIGHT

The details of the siege that followed are uncertain. But this much is clear. After the failure of their first attack, the Iroquois retired into the forest, and there constructed a fort of their own. From this they sallied forth at length, and tried to set fire to the Frenchmen's palisade. With armfuls of blazing birch-bark, they rushed forward, but so brisk was the fire of musketry they encountered that they fell back. Three times their chiefs urged them forward, three times they quailed before the fire of the defence, and turned tail, leaving their dead behind them.

Discouraged by these failures, the Iroquois sent off a canoe to summon reinforcements. While they waited for these reinforcements, they kept up a siege of the fort, preventing Dollard and his men from going down to the river for water, and forcing them to be ever on the alert. Hunger, thirst, and lack of sleep at last did their work. One morning all but four Indians deserted to the enemy. Dollard and his companions were left almost alone.

Surrounded as they were by so many enemies, Dollard and his companions had little hope of staying alive. Dollard made a hand-bomb, hoping, no doubt, that the confusion which this unexpected missile would cause might make the Indians withdraw. Unfortunately, the bomb struck the top of the palisade and fell back into the fort.

On the fifth day of the siege, five hundred warriors who had been planning to attack Quebec and Three Rivers joined the Iroquois. Shouting their savage war-cry, hundreds of Iroquois closed in upon the little fort. A volley from the fort drove them back for a moment. But they returned to the attack. A special band of warriors was chosen to lead the way, protected by huge shields made of split logs bound together with the aid of cross-bars. Crouching behind these shelters, they made their way up to the palisade, and proceeded to attack with their tomahawks.

By this time the defenders of the fort were in grave straits. Deprived of water, they could scarcely swallow food. But there was in their minds no thought of surrender. Dollard had made a hand-bomb, and the fuse of this he now lit, intending to throw it among the Iroquois. Unfortunately, in his weakened condition, he did not throw it clear of the palisade. It struck the ragged top, and fell back into the fort. There it exploded, killing and wounding several of the defenders, and blinding others. In the confusion that followed, the Iroquois swarmed into the fort. Dollard and his surviving companions met them with the courage of despair. Back to back, with a sword in one hand and a hatchet in the other, they sold their lives as dearly as they could.

THEY DID NOT DIE IN VAIN

So perished the heroes of the Long Sault. Of them it may truly be said that they died to save others. The gallant stand they made proved the salvation of New France. The Iroquois warriors had had their fill of fighting. If seventeen Frenchmen and a few Indians behind a rude palisade could hold at bay for over a week hundreds of the picked warriors of the Iroquois tribes, what sort of resistance might be expected from the walled towns of Montreal, Three Rivers, and Quebec? The Iroquois went home, therefore, to their villages, to mourn their losses, and to nurse their anger against the day of vengeance. But in the little settlement of New France men went about their business in the fields and forest, and in the parish churches masses were said for the souls of the departed heroes.

12. Government by the King's Officers

> "Paternal royalty would try its hand at building
> up a colony, and Talon was its chosen agent."
> Francis Parkman: *The Old Regime in Canada*

Until 1663 — fifty-five years after Champlain had founded Quebec — Canada grew very slowly. The total population of the colony numbered very little over three thousand. There were only three towns, Quebec, Three Rivers, and Montreal. There were no roads connecting these towns. All traffic was by boat up and down the St. Lawrence River.

There were several reasons for the slow growth of New France. The fur companies agreed to bring out colonists but they did not live up to their agreement. It was not easy to persuade colonists to come, for the people in France had heard of the Iroquois raids, and of the cold winters. They knew that many of the settlers had died of scurvy during the long winters. Settlers from England had gone in greater numbers to the English colonies to the south, many of them seeking a new land where they could worship as they pleased and not as the monarch ordered. The King of France was a Roman Catholic, and wished only Roman Catholics to settle in New France. Many French Protestants might have come to New France, but the King would not allow them to do so.

THE KING TAKES OVER

In 1663 a new era dawned for New France. Louis XIV of France and his wise adviser, Colbert, decided that they would encourage the colonies in the hope of increasing French trade. Louis cancelled the charter of the fur-trading company and appointed three officers to govern in his name. The governor was to be in charge of the army and of the defence of the colony. The bishop was to look after religion and education. The intendant was to act as a business manager. A council consisting of these three officers and a few residents of the colony was to draw up regulations to govern the colony.

LAVAL—THE FIRST BISHOP

François de Laval was the first bishop. He had come to Canada in 1659 and it was largely due to his report on conditions in Canada that the King decided to cancel the charter of the fur-trading company. As a member of the Council, Laval took an active part in passing the laws and regulations which governed the lives of the settlers. He was deeply concerned about the Indians. The fur-traders had found out that brandy was what the Indians wanted most in exchange for their furs. Unfortunately when the Indians became drunk, they became very violent and terrorized the countryside. Laval tried to pass regulations to forbid the sale of liquor to the Indians. He saw that the missionaries would never be able to convert the Indians to Christianity as long as the traders supplied them with liquor. The traders said that if they did not give the Indians brandy the Indians would take their furs to the English and the fur trade would be ruined. Regulations were made forbidding the sale of brandy to the Indians but these regulations were not always obeyed.

BISHOP
FRANÇOIS de LAVAL

JEAN BAPTISTE TALON

Laval was interested in educating young Canadians to be priests, and, in 1663, he founded a seminary, which was the beginning of Canada's oldest university, Laval University. He divided the colony into parishes and chose priests for each parish. In Quebec to-day there are many monuments to this great bishop and the name of Laval is held in high honour.

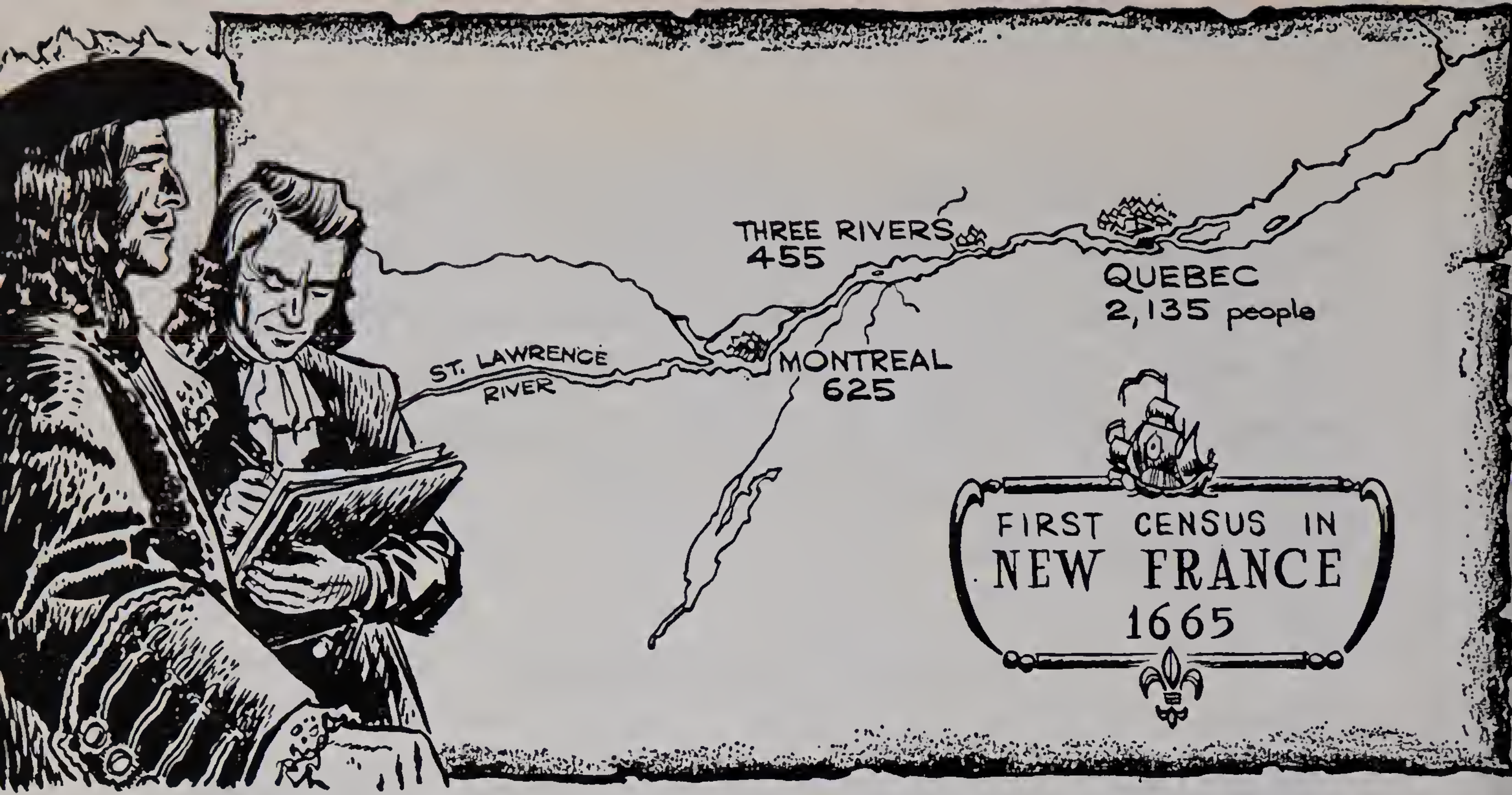
TALON—THE FIRST INTENDANT

Jean Talon was the first and the greatest of the intendants. He was only seven years in New France, but in that short time he earned a place as one of the first "Makers of Canada".

Talon arrived in Quebec in the summer of 1665. Immediately he set about finding out everything he could about the colony. There is a story that, to obtain true information, he went about at first pretending to be his own servant. He thought the people would speak more freely to a servant than to the King's officer.

He ordered a census of all the people and of all the livestock in the colony. This was the first thorough census ever taken in Canada. It showed that there were 528 families in the colony and a total population of 3,215, not counting the soldiers who were stationed there to defend the colony. Quebec, with the seigniories near it, had 2,135 people. In the district of Three Rivers there were 455, and in the district of Montreal 625. Over one-third of the population was under sixteen years of age.

Talon decided that the first need of the colony was for more settlers. There were two ways in which the population might be increased. One was by bringing more settlers from France. The other was by encouraging early marriages and large families. Talon tried both methods.



When some of the companies of the regiment which had come out to fight the Iroquois were being disbanded, Talon offered free land, free provisions for a year, and a sum of money for everyone who would stay in Canada. Several officers and about four hundred of the men decided to stay and accept his offer.

Talon wrote to the King urging him to send settlers every year. The King, at his own expense, sent out several ship-loads of people. But when Talon in his enthusiasm to found a great colony kept asking for more and more settlers, the King's ministers replied that it would not be wise "to empty France to fill New France". This reply did not daunt Talon.

THE "KING'S DAUGHTERS"

In any pioneer settlement there are always more men than women. There were many bachelors in New France. Talon asked that ship-loads of girls be sent out to become the wives of the bachelors. The King agreed to this proposal, and sent agents to find healthy and industrious girls of good character who were willing to go to Canada.

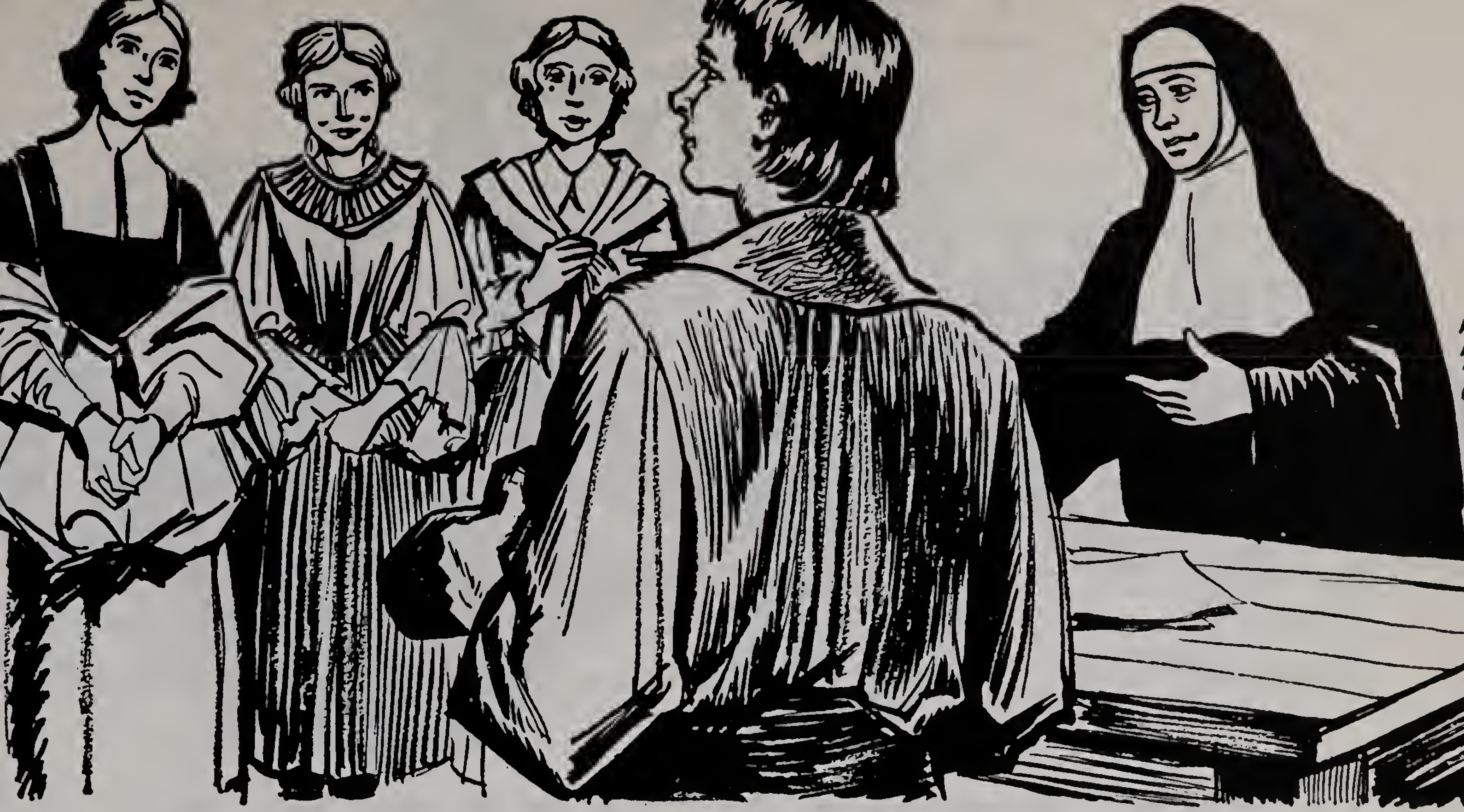
Two nuns accompanied the “King’s Daughters”, as these girls were called, on the long sea voyage. The girls must have gossiped, and wondered about the new life ahead of them. Many must have feared the future, while others looked forward eagerly to the prospect of a husband and a home in the new land.

Great was the excitement in Quebec when the ship with the “King’s Daughters” arrived. The bachelors gathered in Quebec, each hoping to have first choice in picking a wife. But they were not allowed to take the girls of their choice at the wharf. The girls were taken to the Ursuline Convent for a day’s rest.

The next day, the bachelors made their way to the Convent, but they did not meet the girls right away. They met the Mother Superior who made them give an account of themselves. How much land had they cleared? Had they a home built? Had they furniture and stock? Did they attend church regularly? Were they in good standing with their seignior? Many of them had very little to say for themselves.

Next the Mother Superior consulted the nuns who had been in charge of the girls on shipboard. They decided which girls would best suit each young man. Several girls were brought in and introduced. The man might choose the strongest, or most sensible looking, or the prettiest. He could talk to her, tell her what he had and his hopes for the future. She could decide to marry him or not as she wished. No girl was forced to marry a man she did not like.

Talon also encouraged early marriages. Parents were advised to see that their sons were married before they were twenty and their daughters when they were sixteen. Any man who married before he was twenty received a gift of money from the governor. Men who were not married were not allowed to go to the woods to hunt.



Which one will he choose? Will she accept him?

There was a system of family allowances. Three hundred francs were given to the parents of ten children, and four hundred francs were given to the parents of twelve. Even without the family allowance, a large family was an advantage. There was land to be cleared and plenty of work both in the fields and in the homes which strong sons and daughters could do.

So successful were Talon's efforts that in 1671 he was able to report that in that one year nearly seven hundred babies had been baptized in the colony.

TALON TRIES HARD TO MAKE NEW FRANCE PROSPER

Meanwhile the enterprising intendant did everything he could to make the colony so prosperous that people would be eager to settle there. He imported from France many horses, cattle, and sheep. Until his time there had been in New France only one horse—a gift to one of the governors from the fur-trading company.

Talon had looms brought from France and insisted that the habitant women and girls should learn to spin and weave the wool from their own sheep. They soon learned

Talon built up trade between New France and the West Indies. Ships built at Quebec carried lumber, peas and fish to the West Indies, from there took cargoes of rum and sugar to France, and finally returned from France to Canada laden with wine and manufactured articles the colonists could not make for themselves.

to make strong homespun cloth from which they made clothing for the whole family. In order to encourage the habitants to grow hemp and flax, he supplied the seed. From the hemp, bags and coarse cloth could be made. From the flax, linen could be spun and woven.

Though there were oxen and cattle in the colony before Talon came, no use was being made of their hides. He established a tannery and thus made possible the manufacture of shoes and other leather goods in the colony. Before he returned to France, he was able to report: "I am now clothed from head to foot with home-made articles."

Talon was not satisfied with these steps toward making the colony self-supporting. He was determined to build up trade. He built a ship-yard at Quebec, where Canadian lumber was used in building ships which, he hoped, would carry Canadian products to other lands. He encouraged the cod and seal fisheries of the St. Lawrence, and the making of potash and tar. Under Talon, Canada began for the first time to enjoy prosperity.

13. Life in New France

"Here in the dawn of a great nation's morning."
Albert D. Watson: *Canada's Call*

LAND GRANTS TO SEIGNIORS

In France, land was still held according to the feudal system which had grown up during the Middle Ages. The King owned all the land. He granted large areas to the powerful nobles, who in turn granted most of their land to less powerful nobles, who in turn granted small areas to peasants who farmed the land. This was a method devised for protection against enemies. The peasants produced the food; the overlords protected them in time of war.

It was natural that the King of France should set up the same system in New France. Large tracts of land were granted to nobles, or to soldiers, or to merchants, who were willing to try life in the new country. A man who held a grant of land from the King was called a *seignior* and his land was called his *seigniory*. The seignior was expected to find tenants to take part of his land and farm it. These tenants were called *habitants.*

Some seigniories were very large; others were small. When the seignior received his grant of land, he had to appear before the governor at Quebec and on bended knee promise loyalty and obedience to the King of France. Though he paid no money for his seigniory he had certain duties. He had to give the governor a map of his seigniory and a report of the number of people on it, the number of horses, oxen, cows, sheep, pigs, and poultry he owned, what crops he was growing, and how much land he had cleared. It was his duty to see that the habitants cleared and tilled a fair amount of land. If two tenants had a

The grist mill is used for defence as well as for grinding grain.

dispute, he heard both sides and decided which was right. Wrongdoers were brought before him for trial, and he decided what their punishment should be.

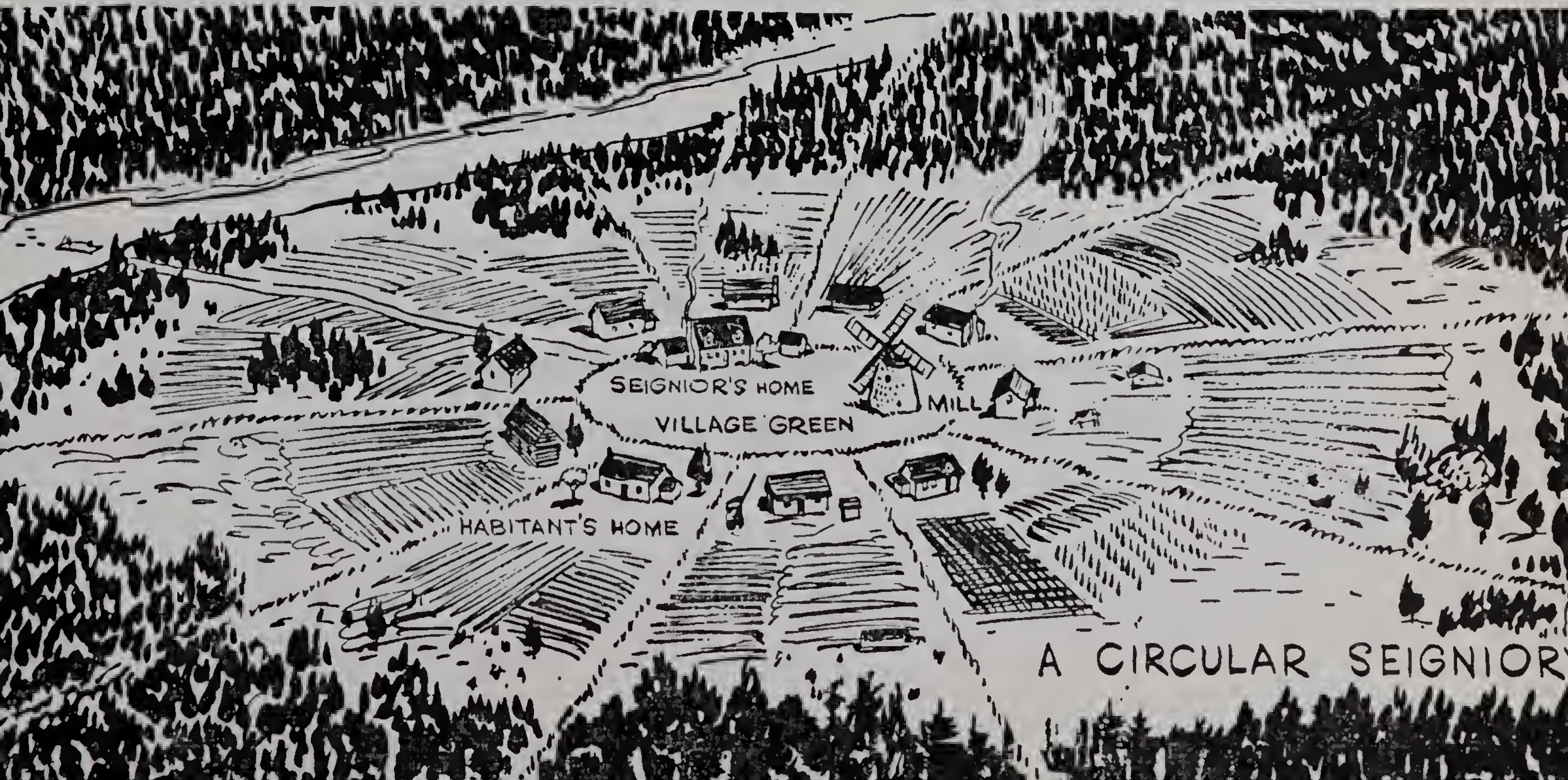
By the terms of his grant the seignior was required to build a grist mill. The habitants were obliged to use it and to give the seignior some of their flour in return for having their grain ground in the mill. Though the habitant sometimes complained about the quality of the flour and the seignior declared that the mill did not pay expenses, it was a wise law that required a mill on each seigniory. These mills were usually built of stone and in case of attack the families living on the seigniory could take refuge there. The mills sometimes served as look-out towers, too. The seignior was responsible for organizing the habitants to defend the settlement against the Indians or the English whenever it was necessary to do so.

It was not easy for the seigniors to find settlers who would come to Canada. Few people were willing to leave their homes in France, however poor those homes were. They feared the ocean voyage and the severe winters. Above all, they dreaded the attacks of the Indians. Some of the seigniors brought tenants with them when they came. Others had agents in France who sought out settlers willing to try their fortunes in the new land. Some seigniors went home to France to seek new settlers. Others met every boat that came to port and tried to persuade newcomers to come to their seigniories.

The habitants had to work a certain number of days each year, usually not more than six, in the seigniors' fields. In return for their lands they had to make certain payments which took the place of rent and taxes. Usually these payments were made partly in money, and partly in goods, such as wheat, barley, pigs, geese, or chickens.

The seigniories were usually on the bank of a river and might extend a couple of miles back from it. The grants to the habitants were long strips, each with river frontage There on the bank of the river, which was the only highway in the new land, the habitant built his cabin. In some parts the houses were so close together and the strips were so narrow that the colony looked like a long straggling village street.

When most of the good land along the rivers was taken up, Talon devised a plan for seigniories which were not on the river front. The farms were surveyed in triangles which formed a circle. A space was left in the centre, in which the seignior and the habitants built their homes. It was part of Talon's plan to have a carpenter, a stonemason, and a shoemaker in each group. On these seigniories the homes of the habitants were close together, and, more important still, they were near the seignior's house. In the seignior's home, or in his mill, the habitants could find refuge in case of an attack by an enemy.



A CIRCULAR SEIGNIOR

The first priests who came to New France came as missionaries to the Indians. But it was not long before other priests came to teach the children of both Indian and French parents. Father le Jeune, of the Jesuit order, who came to Quebec in 1632, spent his first winter there teaching. He began with one Indian boy and one negro boy, who had been given as a present to Madame Hébert by the English during the time they held Quebec (1629-1632). Before spring came, Father le Jeune had over twenty pupils.

Seven years later, in 1639, the people of Quebec rushed down to welcome a ship arriving from France. The guns of the fortress were fired in salute. There was great rejoicing. On this ship came three sisters of the Ursuline order to found a school and three nuns to establish a hospital. The Mother Superior of the Ursulines was Mère Marie de l'Incarnation. Her letters have been printed and in them historians have found a vivid account of the life in New France, of the customs of the people, the problems they had to meet, and the dangers they faced. With the Ursulines came Madame de la Peltrie, a wealthy widow, who was devoting her fortune to establishing the venture.

The Ursulines opened their school at once, with six little Indian girls as pupils. But it was many months before they could give much of their time to teaching. There was a plague of smallpox and they had to help the sisters in the hospital.

Another heroic woman in Canada's story is Jeanne Mance. She came in 1642 with the party Maisonneuve brought to found a mission in Montreal. A rich lady in France gave the money needed for a hospital and Jeanne Mance offered to take charge of it. A few months after the expedition reached Montreal, the Iroquois attacked the little settlement. Several men were killed, others were wounded. From that day Jeanne Mance never lacked patients. To her hospital came workmen wounded by accident in the forests, men wounded in fights with the Indians, friendly Indians who were sick or wounded, and even sometimes a wounded or dying Iroquois.

In 1653 Marguerite de Bourgeoys arrived in Montreal to found a school. Since there were no white children to teach, she began with little Indian girls whose parents were willing to let them attend. Her first schoolroom was a stable, the only building Maisonneuve could spare.

At first, before the settlements were well established, the priests lived in Quebec or Montreal and made visits to the seigniories. When they came they held religious services, baptized the new babies, taught the catechism to the young people of the settlement, and married the young couples who had been waiting for the priest's visit for their wedding. As soon as the settlement was large enough, a church was built and a priest came to stay. Every farmer gave a percentage of his crop of grain to support the church.

The church played a very important part in the lives of the habitants. On Sunday, all dressed in their best, the family went to mass. If anyone did not go, the curé was soon around to find out why. After the service the habitants lingered to gossip and learn the news of the neighbourhood. Every Sunday, after church, the leading habitant, who had been chosen as captain of the militia, read the notices from the officials and posted them up on the wall so that all who could read might study them. It was then that the habitants discussed any requests they wanted the captain of the militia to make to the governor or the intendant for them.

A few of the seigniors were wealthy and had large comfortable homes built of stone. They had fine furniture and fashionable clothing sent from France. In their manors there were servants to do the work of the household. Some seigniors could afford to send their sons and daughters to France to be educated. Others had to depend for a living on the land they farmed.

The habitants built small log cabins for themselves, and later, as they became more prosperous, they enlarged them, or built better ones, usually with an attic where the children slept. They made their own furniture.

After the first difficult years food was plentiful. There was usually plenty of game and fish. Bread was baked in outdoor ovens, built of stone and roofed with wood. Cooking was done in open fire-places. An industrious habitant could grow plenty of vegetables and tobacco in his garden. Pea soup, corn cakes, and maple syrup were regular fare for the habitant and seignior alike.

After Talon's time, nearly every home had its spinning-wheel and its loom. The habitant's wife and daughters spun the wool, hemp, and flax into cloth. From this home-spun cloth they made sturdy clothing for the whole family. They wove blankets for their beds, and rugs for their floors. Since they liked bright colours, they learned to use the juice of berries and the bark of certain trees to dye their wool.

To-day hand-woven rugs and blankets and other handicrafts made by the descendants of these early settlers are sought after by tourists who visit Quebec.

You can still see outdoor ovens like this in Quebec today.

THE QUEBEC MARKET

In Talon's time the habitant and his wife peddled their surplus goods from door to door, but later a market was set up. At eight o'clock a bell was rung to announce that the market was open. The habitant displayed his vegetables, grain, and poultry. His wife sat with her baskets around her, baskets in which there might be eggs, butter, cheese, or maple syrup. Sometimes she brought blankets or rugs she had woven, or toques, mittens, scarves, or socks she had knitted. Indian women, too, came with baskets, beaded moccasins, toboggans, or snowshoes to sell.

From eight to ten the housewives came to buy. After ten o'clock the merchants were allowed to buy for their shops. The market was soon cleared of goods. Then the habitant and his wife went to the shops to buy the things they could not grow for themselves, usually coffee, chocolate, sugar, salt, or spices.

The habitants loved to drive a hard bargain—that was part of the fun. If they got a better price for their produce than their neighbours did, they were greatly pleased. They enjoyed, too, meeting the townspeople and hearing the latest news.

THE HABITANTS ENJOYED LIFE

It was far from all work and no play in New France. The settlers liked to visit their neighbours and every good housewife was always ready for company. The habitants were happy singing the songs of old France, and they loved to dance. The fiddler was always popular.

There were two yearly entertainments at the manor house, St. Martin's Day in the autumn, and the planting of the maypole in the spring.

Since the habitants had very little money, they paid most of their rent in produce. Some brought grain and vegetables; others, in accordance with the terms of the agreement made when they received their land, brought "four fat hens", or "three fine ducks", or "a young pig of the spring litter". The cackling of the hens, the quacking of the ducks and the squealing of the pigs added to the excitement and confusion of the occasion.

ST. MARTIN'S DAY

On St. Martin's Day, November 11th, the habitants gathered at the home of the seignior to pay their rent. For weeks they had been preparing for this visit. If there were any new winter clothes, this finery made its first appearance on St. Martin's Day. The habitants counted out the coins that made up part payment to the seignior, and selected carefully the produce they were required to take as the remainder of their yearly payment of rent.

Great was the excitement in every home when the important day came. The farm work was done quickly, the house set in order, and all the family dressed in their best.

Away they went, in a cart, if they had one; on foot, if they had no cart. There was worry in some homes, too. Most of the habitants were hard workers, and when St. Martin's Day came they were ready with their rent. But some were lazy or had had bad luck and were not ready with their payment. The seigniors were usually kind if a habitant was not able to make his payment because he had had some misfortune, but they could be very stern with a man who was lazy. And no one liked to be shamed before his neighbours.

Every man looked carefully at every payment, and it was a happy man who could boast to his wife on the way home, "There were no finer hens than ours brought to the seignior to-day," or "That Pierre, bragging about his barley . . . . did you see it? It wasn't nearly as good as ours."

After the business of the day the seignior provided a feast, and the rest of the day was a party. The children played games, while the boys and the young men had contests of strength and skill. Later the young people danced and sang, while the older people gossiped and the little children, fast asleep, were tucked away into corners. Long after dark, the habitants made their way home, the rent paid for the year and the party over.

THE PLANTING OF THE MAYPOLE

Early on the first of May the habitants marched up to the manor house carrying the maypole. The seignior's family did not even look out of the window until the leader of the habitants knocked at the door. When the seignior opened the door, he pretended that he was surprised to see the procession. The habitants formally requested permission to plant a maypole and the seignior, just as form-

After the maypole was in place, the leading habitant asked the seignior to "blacken the maypole" and the seignior obliged by firing a blank charge at the top of the pole. After him, all the members of his family in turn fired a shot at it. Then the habitants started shooting. The more powder they burned the greater the compliment to the seignior. Even after the habitants had all gone into the manor house and were enjoying the food and wine the seignior provided, every few minutes someone would leap from the table, grab his gun, and take another shot at the maypole.

ally, granted them permission. Then the seignior and his family came out and joined the habitants. After a prayer for protection during the day, the maypole was raised.

All during the last week in April the seignior's family and servants had been preparing for the May Day festivities. They cooked roasts of veal and mutton, great pans full of spare-ribs, and pork cutlets, and a huge stew of pork and mutton for the old people who had lost their teeth. They had pies made in crescent shape, doughnuts, and pancakes rolled in maple sugar. They had wine and brandy and coffee ready to serve.

When the maypole was securely planted and everyone had taken a shot at it, the seignior invited his tenants in for refreshments. After the feasting was over, young and old took part in games, dancing, singing, and friendly chatter until nightfall. The planting of the maypole was the great festival of the spring, as St. Martin's Day was of the fall of the year.

Many young men, who found life dull on the farm, wanted to be fur-traders. But no one was allowed to trade for furs without a licence and the governor granted few licences. The law was severe; anyone found bringing in furs without a licence might be hanged. Nevertheless, many young men, some habitants, some seigniors, restless on the farms, and eager to make money, slipped away to the forest to hunt and trade with the Indians. They were called *coureurs de bois*, runners of the woods.

These coureurs de bois learned from the Indians how to travel through the trackless forests, how to find food and shelter, how to hide from their enemies. Some lived with Indian tribes, married Indian women, and returned seldom to the settlements. Others, after a few years in the woods, came home and settled down to live quietly on their farms.

The governor, the bishop, and the intendant disapproved of the coureurs de bois. They wanted these young men to stay at home on their farms, to go to church regularly, to

Though the life of the *coureurs de bois* was hard, they would not change it for any other.

marry and bring up large families, and to keep out of the fur trade. Even though the authorities disapproved of the coureurs de bois, there can be no doubt that they made an important contribution to the growth of the colony. They explored its lakes and rivers. They made friends of the Indians, and they learned from them how they fought against an enemy, knowledge that the governor was glad to use in the wars against the English.

For Further Study

1. There are many wild horses on Sable Island. Can you find out why? Sable Island has been called "the graveyard of the Atlantic". How did it earn this name? What activities are there on Sable Island to-day?
2. Marc Lescarbot, who was with De Monts and Champlain at Port Royal, wrote a description of *The Order of Good Cheer* which you might find entertaining. (You can find it in *The Founder of New France* (Chronicles of Canada) pp. 52-4.)
3. Organize a debate on the topic: "Resolved that Champlain made a mistake when he helped the Hurons against the Iroquois".
4. Imagine that you came to Ville-Marie with Maisonneuve. Write a letter to your brother in France describing your experiences.
5. Make a mural depicting the growth of Montreal from the little mission station of Ville-Marie.
6. Prepare a speech of farewell to Talon expressing the gratitude of the people of New France for his services to the colony.
7. In Donalda Dickie's *When Canada Was Young,* there are two plays which you might enjoy presenting to the class. The costumes and settings are very simple and no one part involves very much memorizing. The plays are *A Morning in the Court* and *St. Martin's Day.*

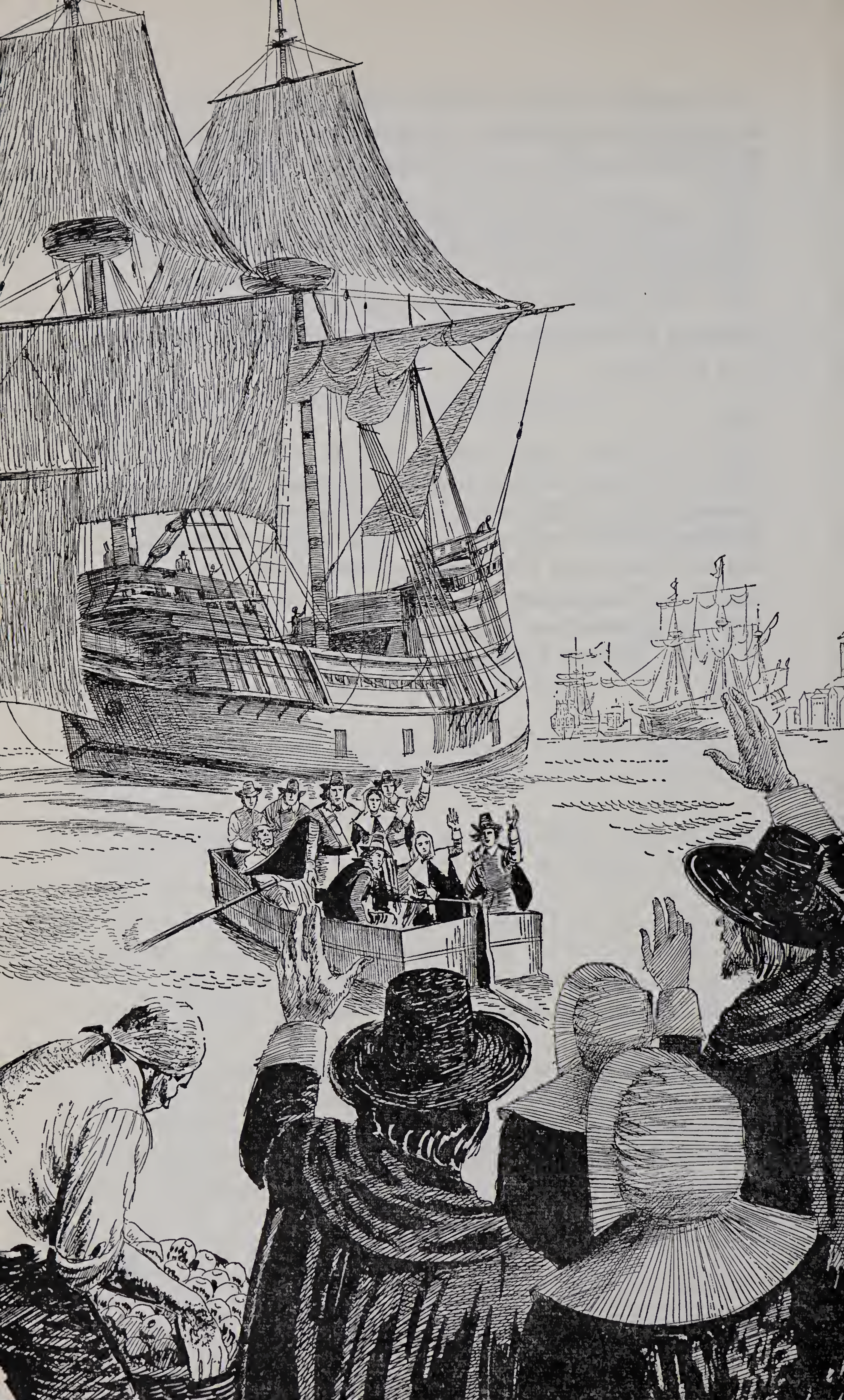
8. Imagine you are an old habitant who was a coureur de bois in his younger days. What stories you might tell your grandchildren about your adventures! Prepare one for the class.

9. Imagine you are the wife of a seignior in New France. What preparations would you make for May Day? What food would you prepare?

10. Do you know any French songs? Perhaps you could find some and learn them. *En roulant ma boule roulant* would be a good one.

11. Add Champlain's *Le Don de Dieu* to your Book of Ships.

12. In 1908 a set of stamps was issued to celebrate the 300th anniversary of the founding of Quebec. Try to get the one-cent stamp with the picture of Champlain and Cartier, the five-cent one with a picture of Champlain's *Habitation*, and the fifteen-cent one depicting Champlain's departure for the West. These stamps are very valuable to-day. The dollar 1935 stamp reproduces a picture of the Champlain monument at Orillia. There is a 1958 Champlain stamp also.



III. *The British in America*

14. Newfoundland, a Nursery for Seamen

"Tide and wind and crag
Sea weed and sea shell
And broken rudder—
And the story is told
Of human veins and pulses,
Of eternal pathways of fire,
Of dreams that survive the night,
Of doors held ajar in a storm."

E. J. Pratt: *Newfoundland*

It was many years after John Cabot's voyage to America before England took any steps to found colonies in the new land. Fishing vessels came every year from England and Western Europe to the Grand Banks. Fishermen landed to dry their nets, to get fresh water, and sometimes to repair ships damaged in a storm. But no fishermen spent the winter in Newfoundland. They came in the spring; they went home in the autumn. Fish were plentiful, the price was good, and the fishermen thought only of filling their ships and getting the fish to market as quickly as possible.

At first, the fishermen cleaned and salted the cod on board their boats. This is known as "green" fishing. Later, the fishermen began to dry their fish on the land before packing it into their boats.

In the sixteenth century, English, French, Spanish and Portuguese ships came to fish off the coasts of Newfoundland.

Dry fishing had many advantages. Fewer fish spoiled before they reached the market; less salt was needed; ships could carry more fish. For dry fishing the fishermen needed buildings and wharves, but, even so, it was more profitable than "green fishing". In time the owners began to leave a few men to look after their wharves and buildings during the winter season. But these men cannot be considered settlers, for they did not plan to spend the rest of their lives in Newfoundland.

England claimed Newfoundland, basing its claim on Cabot's discovery of the island, but fishermen from other nations landed when they needed to do so. Actually nobody cared who claimed the island as long as the owners did not interfere with the fishing. The Portuguese fished around the south-east coast; French ships usually went to the west coast. By 1578 the fishing fleet from France, from England, from Portugal, and from Spain numbered over three hundred and thirty ships.

About that time the people of England decided that they should send out settlers and establish their claim to the new land. In 1583 Queen Elizabeth I gave a charter to Sir Humphrey Gilbert "for the inhabiting and planting of our people in America". Sir Humphrey, a brave sailor and one of the truly great men of his time, set out to found a colony in Newfoundland. The next year Queen Elizabeth gave a charter to Sir Walter Raleigh, Sir Humphrey's half-brother, and Sir Walter sent several expeditions to establish settlements in what is now the state of Virginia.

Sir Humphrey believed that there must be a north-west passage to Asia, and naturally, since he was a patriotic Englishman, he wanted to see England in control of the route. He wrote a book in which he tried to prove that there must be a passage through the new-found continent. He urged that Englishmen should take control of it, just as the Spaniards had of the southern seas.

"It is the only way," he wrote, "for our princes to possess themselves of the wealth of all the east parts of the world. . . . Through the shortness of the voyage we should be able to sell all manner of merchandise brought from thence far better cheap than either the Portugal or the Spaniard doth or may do. Also we might sail to divers very rich countries where there is to be found great abundance of gold, silver, precious stones, cloth of gold, silks, all manner of spices, grocery wares, and other kinds of merchandise of an inestimable price."

Sir Humphrey thought that a colony might solve some of England's problems. "We might inhabit some part of these countries," he wrote, "and settle there such needy people of our country as now trouble the commonwealth."

He had plans, too, about providing employment. "We shall also set poor men's children to learn handicrafts and thereby to make trifles and such like which the Indians and those people do much esteem."

Sir Humphrey set out with a fleet of five ships, the *Raleigh*, the *Swallow*, the *Delight*, the *Squirrel*, and the *Golden Hind.* He took with him carpenters, stone-masons, men who knew metals and would be able to help in the search for gold and other precious metals, and even some dancers "for the solace of our people and the allurement of the savages".

When he sailed into the harbour where the city of St. John's now stands, he found many French fishing vessels there. He hastened to claim the island for Britain and made his plans to build a settlement. The French, who were interested only in their cargoes of fish, did not dispute his claim. They could not imagine anyone wanting to live in so desolate a land.

One ship, the *Raleigh*, had deserted the party when only two days out from England. The *Swallow* was sent home with the men who had taken sick. The *Delight* was lost on a sand-bar. After such bad fortune, with supplies running low, and winter near at hand, Sir Humphrey's men urged him to postpone building the town he had planned and to return to England. He sailed in the smaller ship, the *Squirrel*. A great storm arose. The men on the *Golden Hind* saw Sir Humphrey seated in the stern of the little ship, his Bible on his knee. They heard him call "Do not fear. We are as near to heaven by sea as by land." A few minutes later the *Squirrel* went down with all on board.

If any of Gilbert's men remained at St. John's, they probably joined the fishermen and returned to their homes when the fishing fleet went back to England.

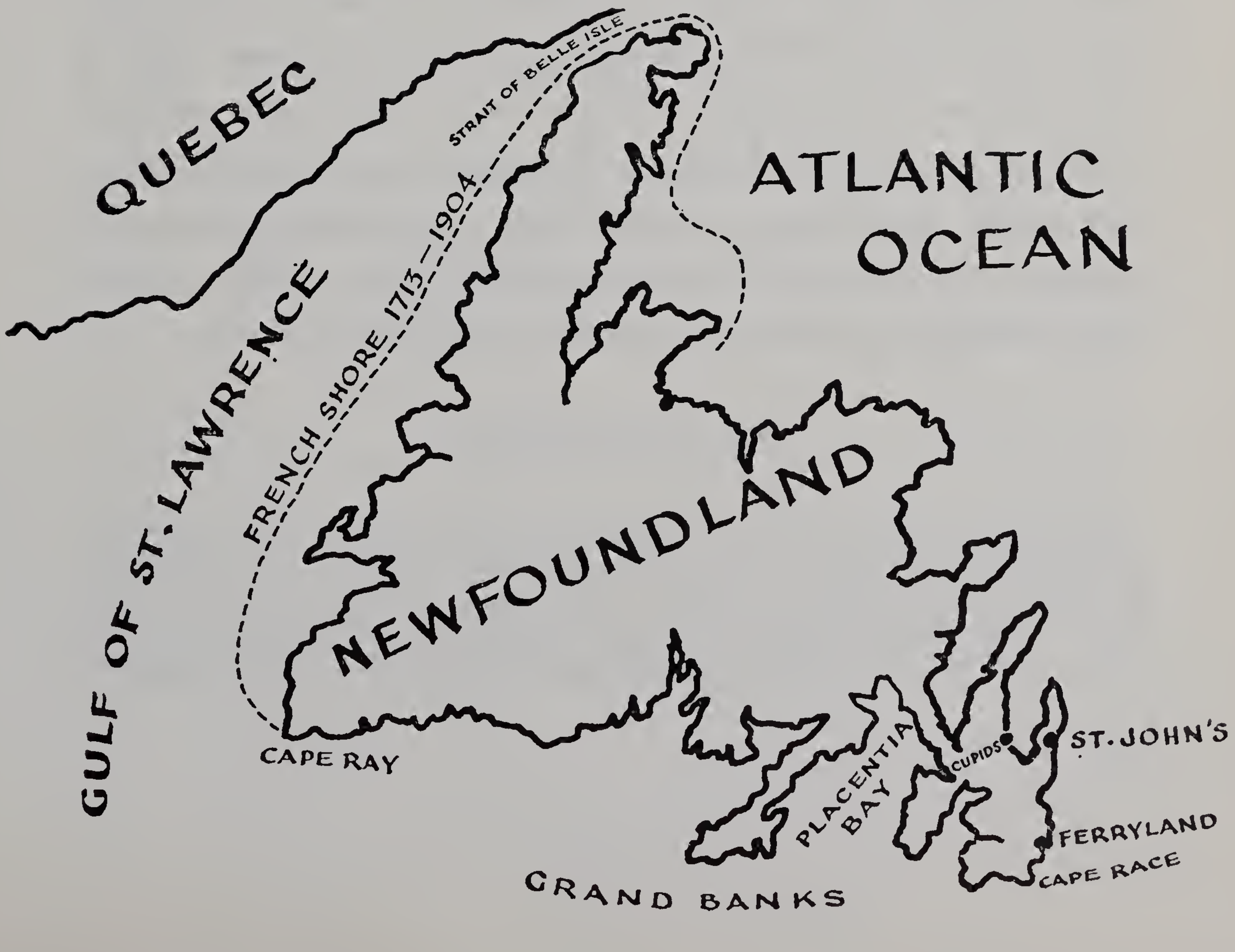
By 1588 England was preparing to ward off the Spanish Armada and every English sailor and every ship were needed at home. No more attempts were made to establish colonies in the new world during the reign of Queen Elizabeth I.

In the reign of King James I, however, Englishmen began to think once more about the new land. In 1607 the first permanent settlement made by the English was established at Jamestown in Virginia. In 1610, the King gave John Guy of Bristol a charter granting him land in Newfoundland. Guy brought forty-one settlers from Bristol and set up a colony at Cupids. There the settlers built log cabins, a sawmill, and a fort for protection against the natives and against pirates. They built wharves, boats, and drying stages on which to spread the fish. With them they had brought some cows and pigs, and they cleared patches of land where they planted grain and vegetables

The fishermen did not want settlers on the island as they feared the settlers would compete with them and ruin their business. In the summer fishermen and pirates attacked the settlers and robbed them. Guy did all he could to protect his people and the colony survived.

In 1627 another colony was established at Ferryland by Sir George Calvert, who later became Lord Baltimore. Lady Calvert was not happy in Newfoundland. She found pioneer conditions too difficult and the climate too severe. The King gave Lord Baltimore's son another grant of land farther south which later became the colony of Maryland.

The Newfoundland colonies did not prosper. The fish merchants of the West Country of England, who controlled the fishing industry, were just as unfriendly to settlers in



Newfoundland as the fur-traders were later to settlers in western Canada. And the fishing merchants were more successful in hindering settlement than the fur-traders ever were. Harsh laws were passed forbidding people to settle on the island. Ship captains were required to take back to England every man they took out to the fishing grounds. Fines were imposed on those who came home without their full quota of men. Settlers were not allowed to build homes, to clear land, or to plant gardens. They were forbidden to live within six miles of the coast. In fact, at one time, a warship was sent out from England to move all the settlers to other English colonies or back to England. When the captain, Sir John Berry, saw that the Newfoundlanders were prepared to fight for the right to stay on the island, he returned to England and told the King that these brave people should be allowed to remain where they were.

It is surprising that any settlements survived the opposition of the fishing merchants and the harsh laws which the British Government was persuaded to pass. Some of the settlers sought safety in remote coves. They built houses where they would be hidden as much as possible. Some bold men defied the laws and built homes right in the harbour of St. John's. If they were lucky, the authorities took no notice of them. But they never knew when they might be driven out and their poor shacks burned to the ground. Even if they escaped that fate, there was always danger of attacks by pirates of other nations.

THE FRENCH SHORE

In the years following Cabot's report of the rich fisheries on the Grand Banks, ships of several nations came every year. After the defeat of the Spanish Armada, Spanish fishermen no longer came. As Portugal declined in power, fewer Portuguese came. Almost all the fishing boats came from England or France.

In 1662, when Charles II gave the French permission to land and dry their fish along the south shore from Cape Race to Cape Ray, the French established themselves at Placentia. Before long French and English fishermen were raiding each other's headquarters. On the whole, the French were more successful in their attacks than the English were when they tried to strike back. However, when a treaty was made in 1713, the French had to recognize that Newfoundland belonged to Britain. They were forced to give up Placentia and their rights on the south shore, but they obtained permission to land to dry their fish on the north and west shores. Before long the French began to claim that they had the right to cut wood along those shores and that the Newfoundlanders had no right to fish in those areas. The Newfoundlanders complained that the British authorities seemed to care more about keeping on good terms with the French than about protecting the rights of the people of their own colony.

GOVERNMENT

When the first settlements were established, the leaders tried to govern justly. But, most of the time, what government there was rested in the hands of the Fishing Admirals. It was a very poor system. According to the law the captain of the first ship to reach harbour was the Admiral for that season, no matter how harsh or ignorant he might be (and some of them could neither read nor write). He had the right to allot space on the beach to the ships as they came in. He was judge in all disputes, with power to punish his foes and reward his friends.

The Fishing Admiral dispenses rough justice on the shores of Newfoundland.

In spite of the fact that grants of land were made to such men as Guy and Calvert, the British Government did not favour settlement in Newfoundland any more than the fishing merchants did. England had not taken long to realize the importance of the Grand Banks. Sir Francis Bacon declared that the fisheries "contained richer values than the mines of Mexico and Peru". But Newfoundland was important to England not only for the profitable cargoes of fish the ships brought home every year. The Newfoundland fishing fleet was a training school for sailors. Newfoundland has been called "a nursery for seamen". After men spent a few years with the fishing fleet they became skilled sailors and of great value to the navy in time of war. At one time the law required that one-fifth of every crew was to be made up of "green" men, in order that more sailors might be ready for service in the navy when needed. England did not want these trained seamen living in a distant colony. She wanted them at home where they would be ready to serve in the navy in case of war.

The attitude of the British Government has been described as follows: "The island of Newfoundland has been considered a great ship moored near the Banks during the fishing season for the convenience of the English fishermen. The Governor was considered the ship's captain, and those who were concerned in the fishery business his crew, and subject to naval discipline, and expected to return to England when the season was over."

People, however, found ways to evade the regulations. Fishing vessels often picked up men for their crew in Ireland, and for these they did not have to account when the ships returned to England. Many of the Irish fishermen remained in the colony. The fishing merchants eventually began to realize that if they could employ men who lived on the island to work for them during the fishing season it would save the expense of bringing men out from England. While France and Britain were at war, the fishermen preferred to settle in Newfoundland and avoid the risk of being captured by the enemy.

In 1802 Governor Gambier, in spite of the laws, granted pasture lands, and in 1804 the population of Newfoundland was estimated to be 20,000. Governor Duckworth, a few years later, pointed out that the laws against settlement could not be enforced and that there would not be enough food unless people were allowed to cultivate the land. Unfortunately, the laws which forbade clearing the land or building houses drove men who might have been good

The first settlers in Newfoundland are forced to build their homes in secrecy because of the laws in force at that time.

citizens to become law-breakers. Some settlers built houses while the governor was away during the winter, hoping that he would not notice them when he returned. Others claimed that a previous governor had given them permission to build, and this trick sometimes worked.

In spite of the harsh regulations the settlements survived.

15. The Southern Colonies

> *"O, where are you going, "Goodspeed" and "Discovery"?*
> *With meek "Susan Content" to make up the three?*
> We're going to settle in the wilds of Virginia,
> For gold and adventure we're crossing the sea.
>
> *And what will you find there?* Starvation and fever.
> We'll eat of the adder, and quarrel and rail.
> All but sixty shall die of the first seven hundred
> But a nation begins with the voyage we sail."
>
> ROSEMARY AND STEPHEN VINCENT BENÉT:
> *Southern Ships and Southern Sailors*

In 1584 Queen Elizabeth I gave the name Virginia, in honour of herself as the Virgin Queen, to England's claims in America. Based on Cabot's discovery, these included all the coast of America from Spanish Florida to the Arctic. Of course, the French claimed the northern half, because of Cartier's discoveries. Both explorers had planted flags and declared that the land belonged to their kings. But planting a flag was not enough. Unless settlements were established and soldiers sent to protect them people of another country might move in. At that time, neither England nor France could spare the people and the soldiers to establish large colonies.

The England of Queen Elizabeth's day was growing in power and ready to expand into the New World. The Queen granted a huge territory to Sir Walter Raleigh and, in 1584, he sent one hundred and eight settlers to Roanoke Island, off the coast of North Carolina. The colonists had a difficult winter because of scarcity of food and trouble with the Indians. When Sir Francis Drake came in the spring they persuaded him to take them back to England. Raleigh sent out four more groups but the colony did not prosper, perhaps because the Queen would not let him leave her court to look after his colony. In 1590 when one of his captains went to Roanoke with supplies he found that the settlers had disappeared. It is believed that they were killed or captured by the Indians.

Raleigh and his men hoped for easy wealth, gold and silver, such as the Spaniards were taking from the Indians of Central and South America. Though North America is a continent rich in furs and fish, in good soil, and in minerals, it did not give its riches easily to the first settlers. The first profits came from the hard and dangerous work of fishing and fur-trading. Later, after patient toil in clearing land and tilling the soil, came wealth from agriculture, and still later, wealth from minerals.

VIRGINIA

Finally, in 1606 James I granted a charter to a group of London business men who formed the London Company and in April, 1607, one hundred and five colonists sailed up the James River. Here in a swampy wooded spot they built a village which they called Jamestown in honour of the King. In 1957 Queen Elizabeth II and Prince Philip came to Virginia for the celebration of the 350th anniversary of the founding of the first English settlement in America.

Life was difficult in Jamestown. Many of the colonists hoped to find quick and easy riches and they wanted to spend all their time hunting for gold and silver. The first need of the colony was for a fort and cabins in which to live, but only a few of the men knew anything about building. Captain John Smith became the strong man of the colony. He made the settlers build a fort and a church and boats for fishing. He made them clear land and till the soil, for he was determined that the colonists should provide food for themselves and not depend entirely on supplies from England. Many of them resented this but Smith said that those who would not work would not eat. Besides all this, the Indians were not friendly and the colonists quarrelled with each other; the land was swampy and there was so much sickness that over half the colonists died the first year.

On one of his exploring expeditions Captain Smith was captured by the Indians and his two companions were killed. According to his story, the Indians were going to kill him when the chief's young daughter, Pocahontas, asked her father to spare him. Pocahontas became a good friend to the settlers and once when they were nearly starving provided them with the food they needed. She married John Rolfe, a young farmer in the colony. After her marriage, the Indians became more friendly.

Without the help of Pocahontas the new settlers would have been unfortunate indeed.

The first colonists were all men, and in the later groups there were many more men than women. The company realized that if the colony was to last the young men must have wives, so they sent out a ship in 1619 with ninety young women on board. A colonist who wanted one of the young women to marry him paid the company one hundred and twenty pounds of tobacco. This policy was so successful that more and more ships came with brides for the settlers.

TOBACCO

John Rolfe, who married Pocahontas, is remembered as the first of the farmers to learn from the Indians how to grow tobacco. Sir Walter Raleigh had taken tobacco to England after one of his voyages to America and smoking had become fashionable. Virginia's climate is hot and humid, and therefore excellent for growing tobacco. Before long many planters were growing tobacco for export to England.

It was difficult to find labourers for the plantations, since the long hours in the sun-baked fields were hard on the Englishmen. Consequently, "indentured servants" were brought out, people who wanted to come to the new land but could not afford to pay their way. In return for their passage money they promised to work for their master for a period of years, varying from three to seven. At the end of that time they were free to work for themselves or to take up land.

NEGRO SLAVES SOLVE THE LABOUR PROBLEM

Slavery began in Virginia in 1619 when a Dutch ship arrived in the harbour at Jamestown with a cargo of Negroes for sale. These unfortunate people had been kidnapped or bought on the west coast of Africa, and crowded into the holds of the ships. Sometimes the ships were so dangerously overloaded that in a storm the captain would order that a number of slaves be thrown overboard to lighten the cargo. Very few people in those days thought as we do to-day, that it is not right for one human being to own another. The English and the Spaniards had both tried to make the Indians slaves but the Indians were too proud and fierce to submit. Planters who could afford it bought Negro slaves just as other farmers bought horses or oxen, and they usually treated them with no more consideration than they did their animals.

The Negroes worked long hours in the fields, hoeing and picking the tobacco. When the planters became more prosperous as a result of their good tobacco crops, they put larger areas under cultivation and bought many slaves, some of whom were taken into the house to do the cooking and care for the children. On some plantations slaves were treated kindly, but on others their lives were hard indeed.

Slaves were sold to the highest bidder, like any other piece of property. Naturally, plantation owners paid more for the big, strapping young men who would work hard in the fields than for women or old people. The whipping-master stands by ready to whip the unco-operative ones.

MARYLAND

Maryland was granted to Lord Baltimore, who had first attempted to establish a colony in Newfoundland. He died before the charter was signed and his rights were given to his son, the second Lord Baltimore. The rent the King asked for Maryland was two Indian arrowheads a year. Although Lord Baltimore never visited the colony, he supervised its management from England. His brother, Leonard Calvert, with two ships, the *Ark* and the *Dove*, and over two hundred settlers, landed on St. Clements Island in Chesapeake Bay, March 25, 1634. To-day the people of Maryland celebrate March 25 as Maryland Day. Lord Baltimore was a Roman Catholic and he planned that the colony would provide a place for persecuted people of his faith. Other Christian faiths were also welcome and in 1649 an act was passed to provide for religious toleration. At first the colony depended on the fur trade with the Indians but before long the settlers grew tobacco, wheat, and corn.

NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA

Carolina was named in honour of Charles I of England, who granted a charter to Sir Robert Heath. Heath did not succeed in promoting a settlement, but later some colonists moved from Virginia in search of better land. When this became known in England, a group of eight nobles at the court of Charles II asked for a charter and received it in 1663. The first settlements were in the northern part of Carolina on Albemarle Sound. In 1670 settlers went to the southern part, where they established a settlement at Charleston. In time, the two colonies came to be known as North Carolina and South Carolina.

Men who owed money and could not pay used to be sent to prison. Once in prison they could not earn money to pay their debts, so they had to stay in prison unless some friend helped them. General James Oglethorpe visited many prisons in England and thought it a great waste to keep these men in jail. With some other kind men, he formed a company to give some of these debtors a new start in America. King George II granted a charter to James Oglethorpe and his friends and gave them the right to establish settlements south of Carolina. The colony was then named Georgia in his honour.

In 1733 General Oglethorpe and one hundred and sixteen settlers came to the new land. Later a number of people from Europe who had been persecuted for their religious beliefs joined the colony.

Until 1747 rum and slavery were not allowed in Georgia because the governors thought that drink and idleness had caused much of the trouble the debtors had had in England. The climate was warm and humid in Georgia just as it was in Virginia and the colonists resented not being allowed to have slaves. Nor could Georgia trade rum for West Indian sugar, as some other colonies were doing.

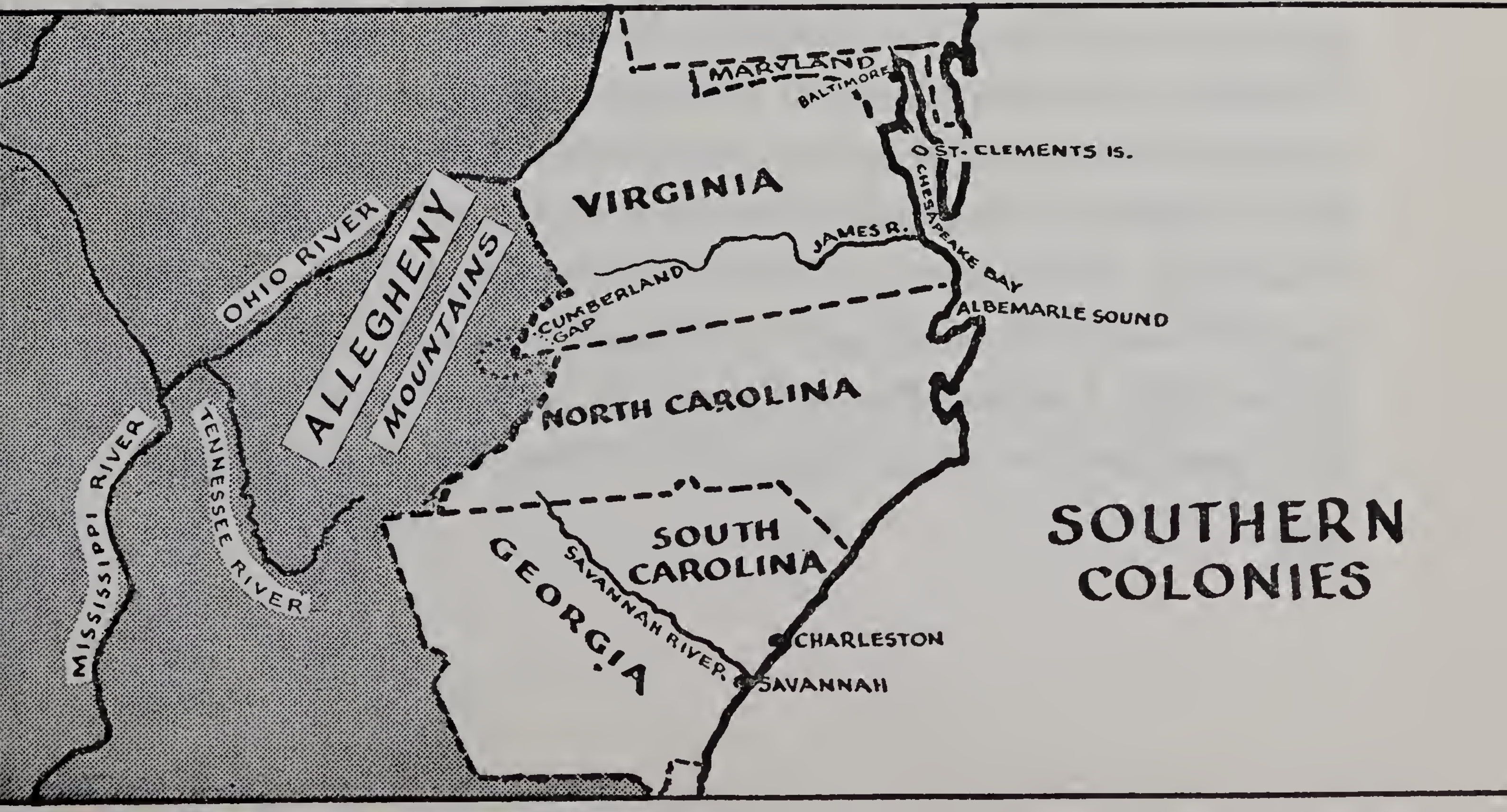
GOVERNMENT

As early as 1619, the governor of Virginia called upon the more prosperous of the colonists to elect two representatives from each borough to the House of Burgesses to advise him about making laws. Virginia is proud of being the first colony to be given representative government. Even though the governor did not have to accept the advice of the Burgesses, and only the men who held a certain amount of land were allowed to vote, this was the beginning of democracy in the New World.

For many years the governors of the colonies were appointed by the company or by the proprietors, to whom the King had granted the land. Virginia became a Crown colony in 1624, under the direct control of the King. Later most of the other colonies also became Crown colonies.

LIFE ON THE PLANTATIONS

When King Charles I was beheaded and England was ruled by the Puritan Oliver Cromwell, a number of English gentlemen who had supported the King came to the southern colonies. They brought with them their handsome furniture, their fine clothes, and their courtly manners, and in the New World lived much as they had in England. The hard work was done by the slaves as it had been done by their tenants at home. Beautiful large homes were built and horse racing, fox hunting, and gay parties became their chief activities. Their children did not go to school but were taught by governesses and tutors; some planters sent their sons to school in England. After William and Mary College was established in Williamsburg in 1693, many young gentlemen went there to complete their education.



In addition to tobacco, their most profitable crop, the southern colonies grew rice, indigo, corn, and, later, cotton. From their pine forests they produced the turpentine, pitch, and tar needed for the wooden sailing-ships of that day. Shiploads of slaves helped to solve the labour problem. Soon there was a lively trade with England, sailing-vessels carrying the products of the colonies to the Mother Country and bringing back cloth, tools, farm implements, guns, fine furniture, pottery, and cutlery for the colonists.

16. Pilgrims and Puritans

"The breaking waves dashed high
    On a stern and rockbound coast,
And the woods against a stormy sky
    Their giant branches tossed;

And the heavy night hung dark
    The hills and waters o'er,
When a band of exiles moored their bark
    On the wild New England shore."

FELICIA HEMANS: *The Landing of the Pilgrim Fathers in New England*

In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries there were many religious wars in Europe. Most people believed the entire continent would be in danger if more than one religion were permitted. Usually, if the King was Roman Catholic his subjects had to worship as he did; if the King was Protestant the people must also be Protestants. For a time England alternated between the two: she became Protestant under Henry VIII and continued so under his son Edward VI, reverted to Roman Catholicism under Mary, then became Protestant again under Elizabeth and has remained so ever since. But there were some who thought the Church of England had not gone far enough when it changed from Roman Catholicism. They wanted a "purer" religion. These people called themselves Puritans.

Others, called Separatists, went even farther and thought that a new church should be established. The law, of course, required everyone to attend and support the Church of England but the Puritans and Separatists met wherever and whenever they could to worship in their own way. Naturally, they were soon persecuted by the government. Consequently, some of them decided to leave England in search of religious freedom.

THE PILGRIM FATHERS

One group of Separatists, known as the Pilgrims, went to Holland. They soon realized, however, that their children would become Dutch, so they looked around for another England. The Pilgrims did not have enough money to finance a journey to the New World, but the London Trading Company agreed to help them in return for half their earnings during the first seven years.

In 1620 one hundred and two Pilgrims set forth across the Atlantic in the little *Mayflower.* The voyage, which to-day is made in a few days, then took sixty-three days. The ship was overcrowded; many of the adventurous Pilgrims were seasick, others suffered from scurvy because of the lack of fresh vegetables. Cooking was done in frying-pans over small charcoal fires or in kettles over boxes of sand in which a fire had been started, but this was so difficult that many people depended on dry biscuits. There was no place for the passengers to bathe or wash their clothes.

It was December when the Pilgrims landed in Massachusetts Bay at a point which they called New Plymouth, naming it for the port in England from which they had

From this first feast of the Pilgrims has come our own Thanksgiving day.

sailed. Shelters had to be built immediately. It was a hard winter, colder than any they had known in Europe. They had not brought a large supply of food with them and were not skilled in hunting and fishing. Conditions were so difficult that more than half the settlers died during the first winter. When spring came they learned from the Indians to plant squash and beans and pumpkins. In the autumn of 1621, after harvesting their crops, they celebrated their first Thanksgiving. They thanked God for his mercies and feasted on wild turkey and other wild fowl from the forest. To-day turkey is the traditional dish for our Thanksgiving dinner.

MORE SETTLERS

After the Pilgrims had led the way, many groups of Puritans followed. In 1630 a fleet of eleven ships brought about seven hundred settlers to Massachusetts Bay. Some settled at Charlestown, some at Salem, others at Boston. Although a number of these settlers were well off and the group was much better provided with supplies than the earlier Pilgrims had been, they endured many hardships during their first months in America. Homes had to be built; they lacked fresh food; many of the settlers died. When the ships returned to England, a hundred people decided that they would rather endure persecution in England than the trials of life in America. It is estimated, however, that by 1641 twenty thousand people had emigrated to Massachusetts.

Two new colonies were soon started by clergymen who had first settled in Massachusetts. In 1636 Thomas Hooker led about a hundred members of his church to the richer lands of the Connecticut River valley. There they settled where the city of Hartford now stands, thus establishing the colony of Connecticut. Roger Williams, who objected to the rigid rule of the Massachusetts clergy, founded Rhode Island. He thought that the government had no right to dictate to the consciences of men and said so. When the magistrates learned of his opinions they decided to expel him from the colony and send him back to England. Williams heard about their plans and fled into the wilderness where he found shelter with the Indians. In 1636, with a few friends, he established a settlement at Providence, Rhode Island, "for the receiving of such as were troubled elsewhere about the worship of God".

Later, New Hampshire was founded by Captain John Mason, who gave it the name in honour of his old home in England. More settlers from England joined Mason and some came from Massachusetts to escape the stern rule of the Puritan leaders.

LIFE IN NEW ENGLAND

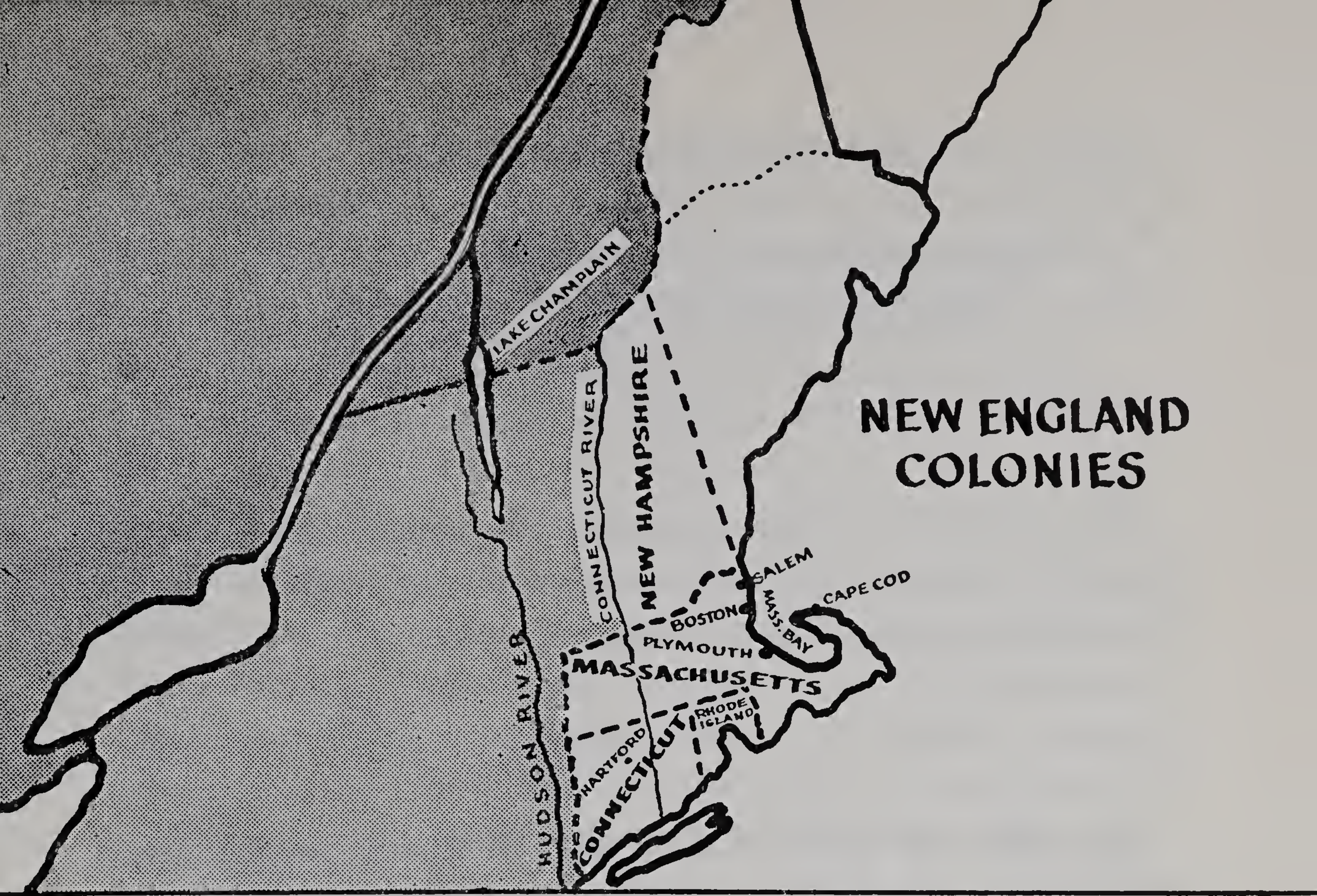
Life was difficult in the New England colonies, for the climate was harsh and the soil poor. There was always danger from unfriendly Indians. Although it was a continual struggle to keep alive, especially since many of the settlers had no previous experience in farming or fishing, they had gained what they wanted most: freedom to worship as they wished. As soon as they arrived in America they set up their own church government.

These settlers were free, too, from having to obey a king who taxed them without the consent of their representatives. Each settlement held town meetings in which they made regulations for their own community; each town sent representatives to an assembly which made laws for the colony. These town meetings and assemblies laid a firm basis for democracy in America. The New Englanders became very independent and resented bitterly that the British Government could change or even forbid some of the laws they passed.

Every Sunday young and old went to church and listened to sermons which might last two or even three hours. The leaders made very strict rules about the behaviour of the settlers. Their religion taught that idleness and vanity were sins and that most pleasures were snares the Devil had set to capture their souls. Laws were passed against dancing, plays, cards, frills and ornaments on clothing, and many other diversions we would consider harmless. Anyone who broke one of these laws might be put in the stocks in the town square, or even whipped at the public whipping-post.

The New Englanders believed that everyone should be able to read the Bible. Therefore, everyone had to learn to read. At first, one woman in the colony might undertake to teach the children in her own home. Later a law was passed that as soon as there were fifty families in a settlement a school must be established. In order to provide training for young men who were going to be minis-

This man has offended against the strict Puritan laws.



ters, there must also be universities. The first was Harvard, founded in 1636.

The New Englanders were not as fortunate in their choice of a home as were the settlers who went to the southern colonies. The rocky Appalachian highlands come near the coast, so there is no wide coastal plain as there is farther south. As it was hard work tilling the poor soil in New England many colonists turned to the sea for their livelihood. Plenty of good trees were growing on the slopes of the mountains, and from them fishing fleets were built for bringing in great loads of fish from the nearby ocean and from the Grand Banks. They also built trading fleets to carry fish and rum to the West Indies; these were then traded for sugar and molasses from which more rum could be made. Slaves were brought from West Africa to the southern colonies. Thus, before long trading ships from New England were sailing all over the world. The New Englanders became prosperous and could afford to feel quite independent of the Mother Country.

17. The Central Colonies

"Then I had a vision of their heritage,
The sea-like rivers, wharved with living pine,
Broad lands behind a thousand leagues of coast,
Prairie and lake, of the old diluvian age."
LANCE FALLOW: *The Navigators*

The Central Colonies, sometimes called the "bread colonies", because of their grain farms, were New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware.

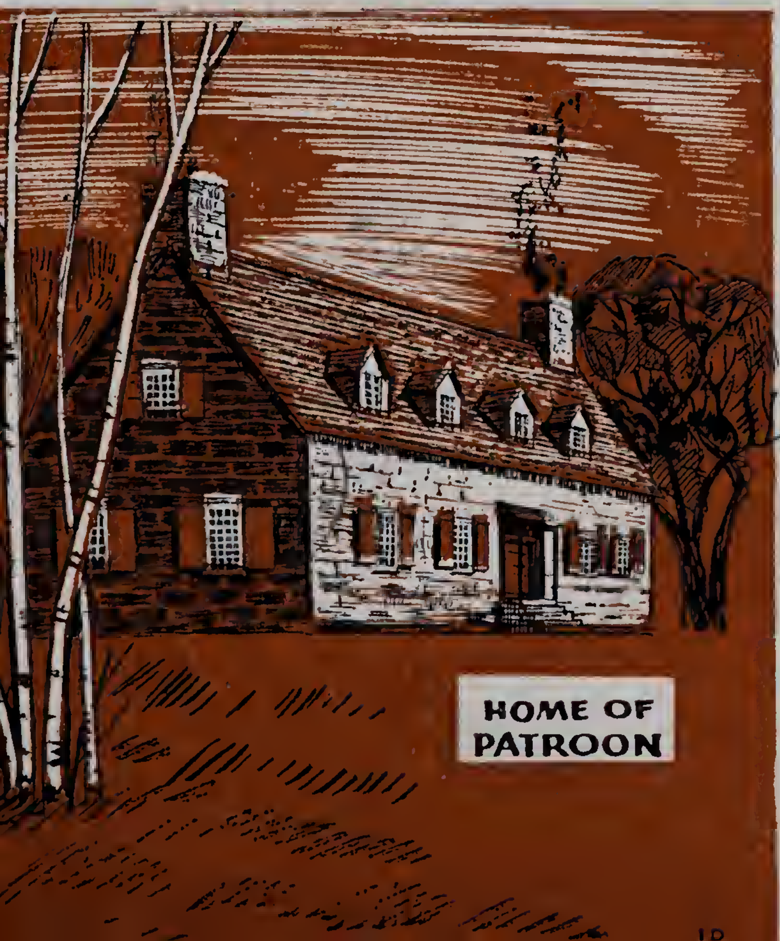
NEW YORK

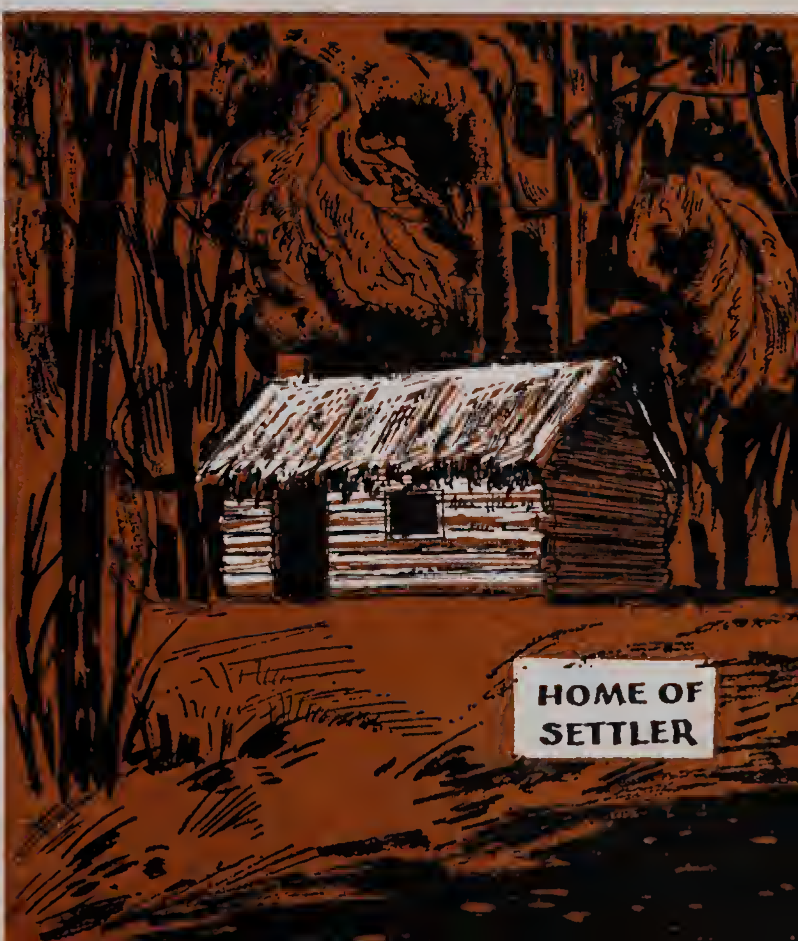
In 1609, the Dutch East India Company sent Henry Hudson, an English sea-captain, across the Atlantic to search for a northwest passage. He discovered the Hudson River and sailed up it as far as the present site of Albany but he did not find a passage to Asia. This was the same year that Champlain travelled up the Richelieu River to Lake Champlain. Since Hudson reported that there were good prospects for fur trade and that the land was rich and fertile, less than a year later men came to trade with the Indians for furs. Soon great loads of furs were being taken back to the Netherlands. One ship carried over 7,000 beaver skins and the Dutch were pleased with the wealth from the new land. The traders built a fort in 1617 where the city of Albany now stands and named it Fort Orange.

In 1621, the same year that the Pilgrim Fathers came to New England, the Dutch East India Company was given a charter to trade and found colonies in the area along the Hudson River, which they called New Netherland. Not many Dutch people were eager to come to America because they had religious freedom at home and were contented there. As the fur trade grew, however, the company wanted farmers to come to raise food for the traders. The first settlers took up land near Fort Orange and close to a fort on the Delaware River, near the present site of Camden, New Jersey.

In 1626, two shiploads of people settled on Manhattan Island, now part of the city of New York. They called it New Amsterdam after the capital of their homeland. The leader bought the island from the Indians for beads and trinkets worth about twenty-four dollars. Land in the heart of New York is very expensive to-day and people often laugh to think that it was ever so cheap that one man could buy the whole island for so little. A fort was built and some of the settlers began to till the soil. New Amsterdam soon became a prosperous trading and shipping centre.

To encourage settlement, the Dutch East India Company gave large grants of land to men who would undertake to bring out at least fifty settlers. These landowners, who were called patroons, enjoyed a position like that of the seigniors in New France. They rented some of their land to other farmers who paid them about one-tenth of their produce and were required to work on their land. The patroon administered law in his territory and punished those





who disobeyed the laws. He also had the right to trade in anything but furs. This system had certain advantages. It brought settlers and it provided for government on each grant of land. As the patroons became wealthy while their tenants remained poor, however, many of the sturdy independent Dutch settlers resented the payments they had to make and wanted to have the right to own their land.

NEW NETHERLAND BECOMES NEW YORK

In 1664 an English ship appeared in the harbour of New Amsterdam and demanded that the Dutch surrender. The governor wanted to fight, even though he had only twenty small cannons, but the English promised the settlers many privileges if they would surrender and the settlers, who were dissatisfied with the rule of the Dutch East India Company, refused to fight. The governor unhappily raised the white flag and surrendered. King Charles II gave the whole region to his brother, the Duke of York. New Amsterdam and New Netherland were renamed New York, and Fort Orange was called Albany. Of this very large territory the Duke of York gave a large grant to two of his friends who then named it New Jersey.

The Dutch were allowed to keep the land they had been granted and were assured their religious freedom. Most of the settlers remained in the colony. Handsome stone houses built by the patroons still stand in the Hudson Valley, and many important names in American history, such as Roosevelt, Vanderbilt and Stuyvesant belong to descendants of the early Dutch settlers. Washington Irving's amusing *Legend of Sleepy Hollow* presents a good picture of life among the early settlers. Other settlers came, too, from England and the colony grew in population and in wealth.

A governor and a council were appointed to look after the affairs of the colony but this did not satisfy the colonists. They wanted an elected Assembly. The Duke of York granted them one in 1683, but when he became James II in 1685, he abolished it. Three years later when James II was driven from the throne, an elected Legislative Assembly was established once more.

Most of the people of New York were fur-traders, farmers, artisans, or men engaged in the ship-building and shipping industries. New York City has one of the finest harbours in the world, but it did not grow as rapidly at first as Boston, Philadelphia, or Charleston, because for a long time so many pirates made it their headquarters that sober business men were afraid to risk their ships there. Captain Kidd was one of the notorious pirates who operated from New York. It was not until after 1720 that the pirates were driven out and New York became safe for other trading ships.

PENNSYLVANIA

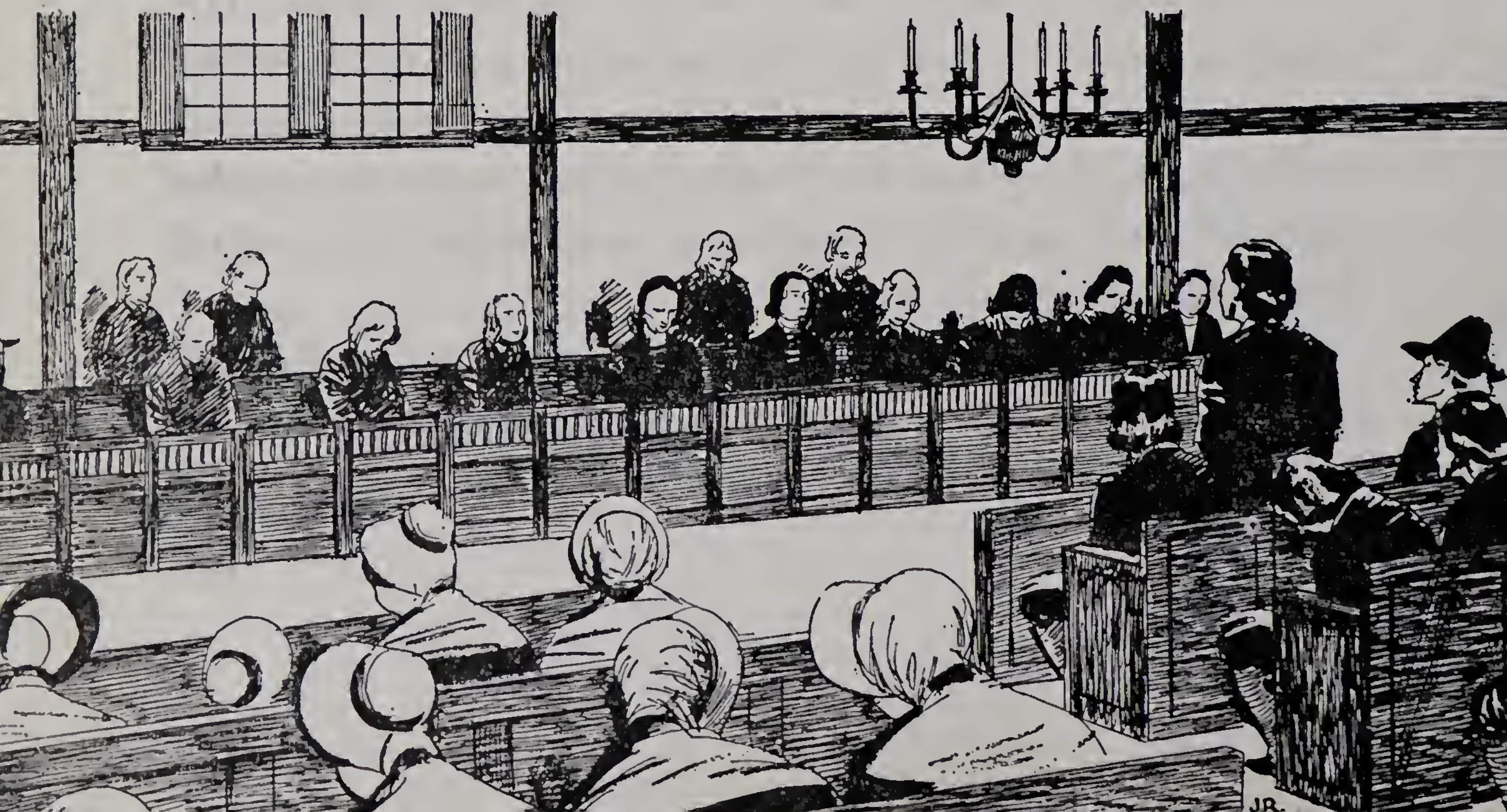
The first Europeans to settle in Pennsylvania were from Sweden. They bought land from the Indians and where Wilmington now stands they built Fort Christina, naming it after their Queen. There the settlers grew tobacco, wheat, rye, and barley, raised cattle, and built a mill. The Dutch in New Netherland did not want a Swedish settlement to rival theirs and in 1655 forced the Swedes to surrender to them. When the Dutch, in turn, had to surrender to the British in 1664, the colony came under the control of the English King.

William Penn was the son of an admiral in the English navy, who had lent a large sum of money to Charles II. Admiral Penn was a rich man and a close friend of the

King, and he expected his son William to take his place at court. While William was at Oxford University, he became interested in a religious group who called themselves the Society of Friends. Other people called them Quakers. The Friends did not have fine churches or paid ministers. In their meeting-houses they sat in silence listening to hear the voice of God in their hearts. If one of them thought he had a message the others should hear, he stood up and spoke. They refused to pay taxes to support the Church of England and refused to take oaths in law courts. Since people were often required to take an oath to be loyal to the King, they were often in trouble with the law. Because they believed that all men were equal, they would not take off their hats even to the King. To show that they were free from worldly pride, they wore plain grey clothing without ornaments. They thought war was wicked. Hundreds of them were sent to jail or publicly whipped because they would not obey laws which would have required them to act contrary to their beliefs.

Penn went to the Quaker meetings and realized that he agreed with them about many of these matters. He was expelled from Oxford when he and his friends tore the surplices off some of their Church of England friends.

Urged by the "Inner Light", a Friend at meeting stands to speak.



When his family learned he had become a Quaker, his father told him to leave home. He was imprisoned several times because of his religious convictions. Once, when in the Tower of London, he was offered his freedom if he would admit that he had been wrong. "My prison shall be my grave," he declared, "before I will budge a jot."

Although Admiral Penn was very angry at William and did everything he could to make him give up the Quaker faith, he left him a large sum of money when he died. Penn longed to establish a colony in America where Quakers would be free to practise their religion without persecution, so he went to the King and asked him for a grant of land. Since the King knew he could never repay Penn the money he owed his father, he was glad to find a way of cancelling the debt, and in 1681 gave him a huge grant of land along the Delaware River. In return Penn promised to send the King two beaver skins every year as rent.

Penn became the proprietor of this rich and fertile land, just as Lord Baltimore became proprietor of Maryland. He could collect rents from the colonists, make the laws, appoint judges and collect taxes but he was expected to suppress piracy and defend the colony if necessary. To encourage settlers to come he wrote descriptions of his colony, telling about the mild climate, the fertile soil, the great forests, and the fish and game to be found there. He promised that the colonists would have a voice in the government, that the laws would be just, and that any group might establish its own church without fear.

Penn wanted to call the country Sylvania, because of the forests. Silva is the Latin name for forest. "They added Penn to it," he wrote in a letter, "and though I much opposed it and went to the king to have it struck out, he said it was past, and would take it upon him; nor could twenty guineas move the under Secretary to vary the name; for I feared lest it be looked on as a vanity in me and not as respect in the king, as it truly was, to my father." In 1682 Penn sailed up the Delaware River and selected a site for his headquarters. He called it Philadelphia, which means "the city of brotherly love".

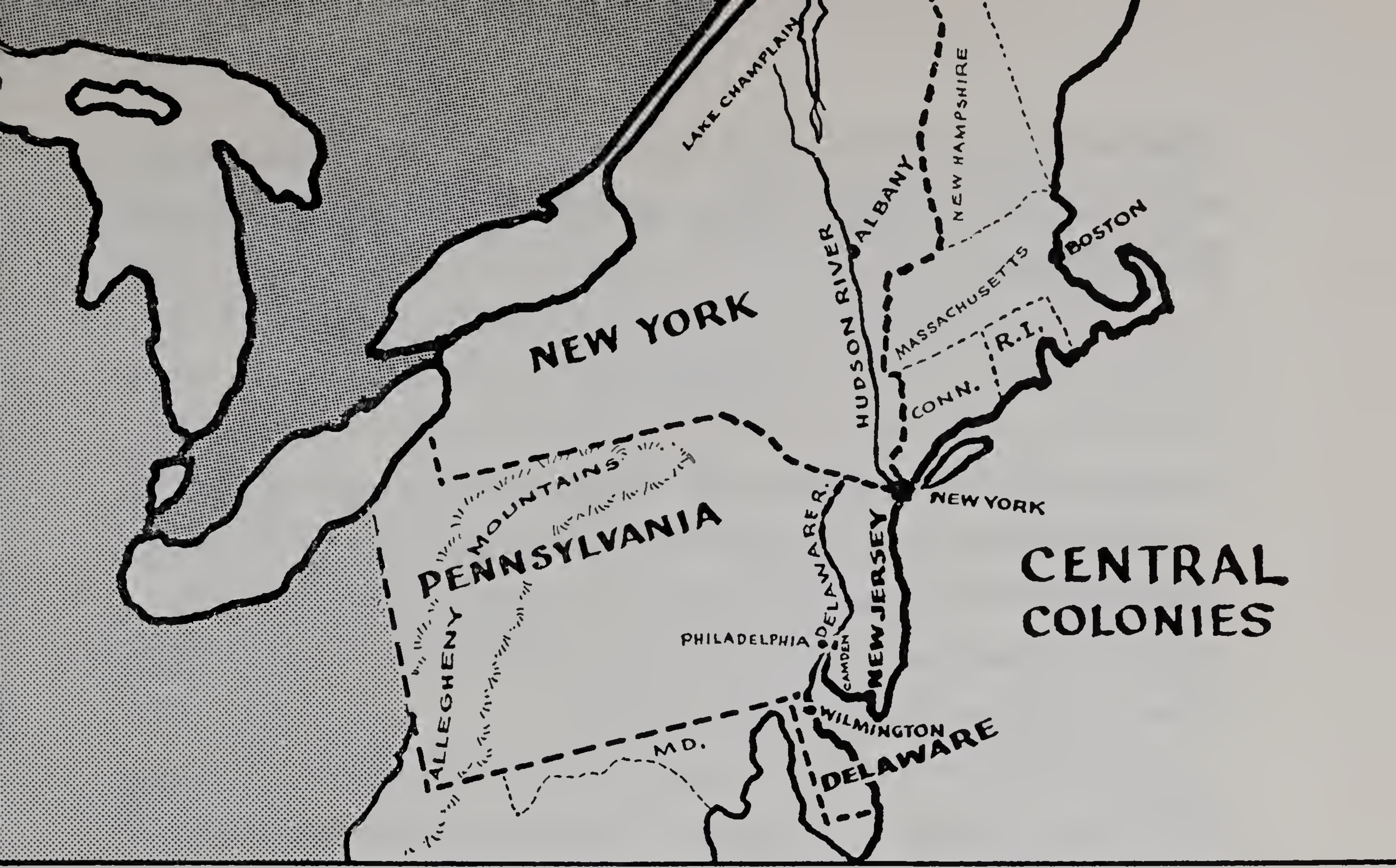
From the beginning the colony prospered. There was plenty of food, plenty of supplies for building and farming, the soil was rich, the people hard-working and thrifty. Because Penn paid the Indians for their land, and promised them that they would be treated justly, the settlers did not have to waste their energy in fighting.

Few other colonies had as much to offer as Pennsylvania. There the settlers found peace, plenty and religious freedom. William Penn, as proprietor, had been given absolute power over the colony, but he had no ambition to become a tyrant. At first, the elected Assembly could not propose any new laws; it could only agree to or reject laws which the council, appointed by Penn, proposed. In 1701, however, Penn announced a new constitution which gave the Assembly very wide power.

It is not surprising that many people decided to come to Pennsylvania. They poured in—Quakers from England, from Wales, and from Germany, Mennonites who had been persecuted wherever they went, people who wanted to escape the religious wars in Germany, people who were attracted by prospects of making a better living than they could in the old land. Philadelphia soon became the largest city of the colonies.

DELAWARE

Until 1704 Delaware was part of Pennsylvania, although the people often acted independently of Pennsylvania. Whenever England was at war Spanish and French raiders



harassed the coastal settlements. Pleas for assistance in warding off these pirates were made to the government at Philadelphia, but the Quakers could not be persuaded to prepare for fighting. The people of the lower counties, as Delaware was then called, organized their own militia. In 1704 Delaware was granted the right to elect its own Assembly, although the governor of Pennsylvania continued to act also as governor of Delaware.

18. Bermuda and the West Indies

"But still our noble Englishmen
Cried out, 'A fig for Spain'."

Old Ballad

Bermuda and many islands in the West Indies were settled or taken from Spain by the British. At one time Britain considered these islands a very important part of the empire, more important than Canada. Great seamen, such as Sir John Hawkins, Sir Francis Drake, and Sir Walter Raleigh visited them and took any booty they could from

Spanish ships they found in the harbours. During war with Spain or France these islands became headquarters of privateers.

BERMUDA

About five hundred and eighty miles east of North Carolina there is a group of small islands lying close together which we call the Bermuda Islands. Some estimates say there are over three hundred of them, though only about twenty are inhabited to-day.

Spaniards had visited Bermuda shortly after Columbus made his voyages to America. The first record we have of British visitors is in 1609, when Sir George Somers, who was taking settlers to Virginia in the *Sea Venture*, was forced by a hurricane to land there. At that time the islands were uninhabited. Wild pigs, descendants of pigs the Spaniards had set ashore there many years before, provided food for the shipwrecked crew and passengers. There they also found quantities of pigeons, turtles, and fish. Sir George built two small ships and loaded them with pigs, pigeons, turtles, and dried fish. Next year when he sailed to Virginia, he found the settlers at Jamestown besieged by the Indians and near death from starvation. Somers and his supplies saved their lives.

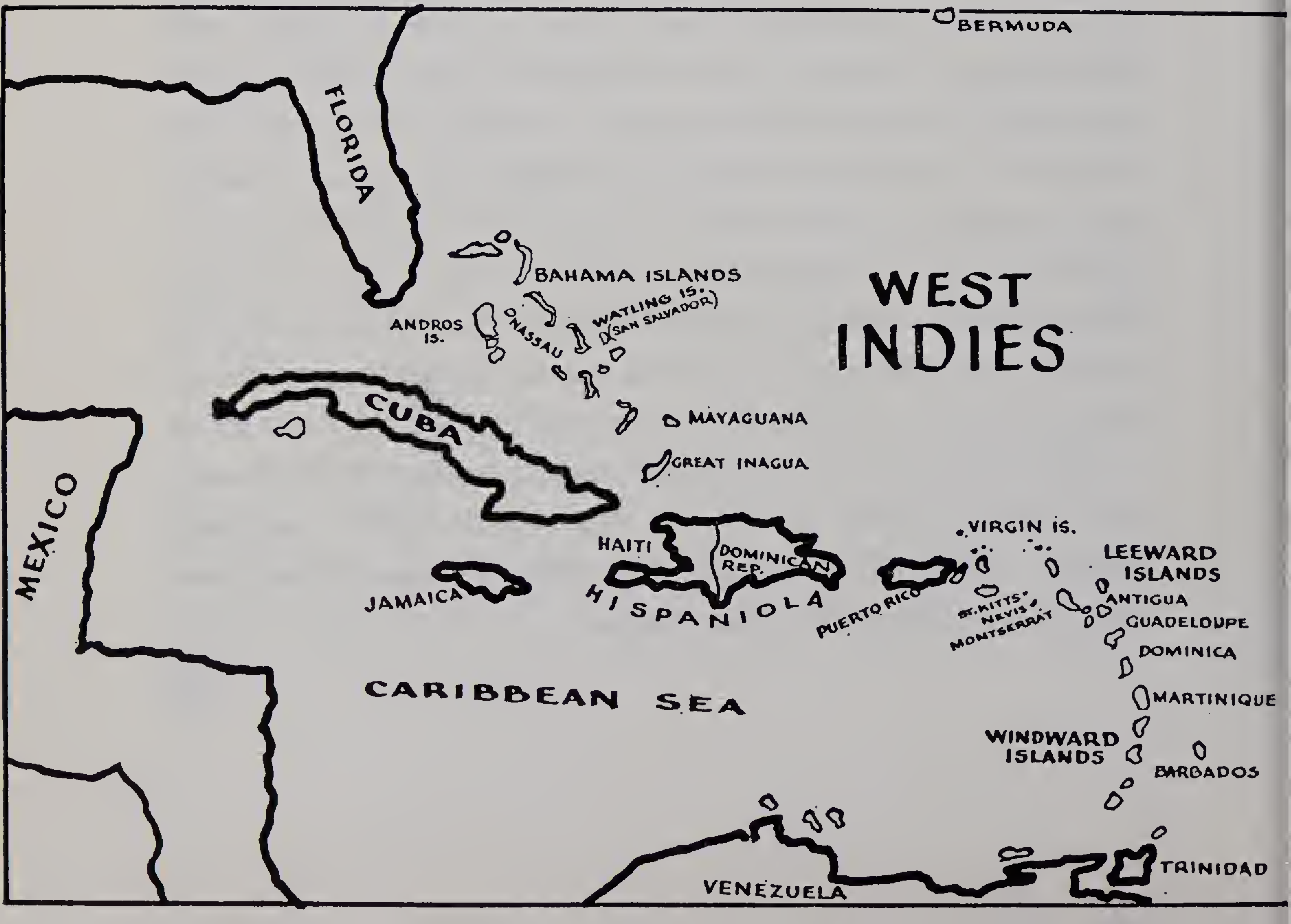
When news reached England about these islands, so rich in food supplies, the Virginia Company persuaded the King to amend its charter to include the right to establish settlements in Bermuda. In 1612, a group of settlers arrived to make their homes there. Later the Virginia Company sold its rights to a new company called the Bermuda Company. The settlers paid rent to the company for their land, but when they became more prosperous they would buy it. They could not make fortunes by growing tobacco as the settlers in Virginia did, for the soil was not suitable, but they soon found another way to make a good living. Several of the West Indian islands had salt ponds where salt was extracted from sea-water by evaporation. Bermuda ships carried this salt to the fisheries of the North Atlantic colonies and brought back salt fish which they exchanged in the West Indies for more salt as well as for sugar and rum, which were in great demand on the mainland.

The people of Bermuda are proud of the fact that they were the second British colony to have an elected Legislative Assembly. On August 1, 1620, their Legislature met in the parish church in St. George's. It consisted of a Council, appointed by the governor, and an Assembly, elected by the settlers. The first elected Assembly had met the previous year in Virginia.

The people of Bermuda did not join in the American War of Independence but some of them secretly gave help to the Americans. It was a difficult time for Bermuda, as most of their supplies of food came from the rebellious colonies. The wild pigs Sir George Somers had found there had disappeared, and the island did not produce enough food for the population. Great Britain forbade trade with the American colonies, but the Bermudians needed supplies, and asked the American Congress to trade with them. The Americans said they would send supplies only in exchange for fire-arms or ammunition. They knew that there was a good supply of gunpowder on St. George's Island. Some Bermudians, who sympathized with the rebels, took the powder from its storehouse and carried it out in small boats to two American ships that were waiting for it. As a result of this action, the Americans resumed trade with Bermuda and declared that American privateers, who were capturing all the British ships they could take, should not interfere with Bermudian ships.

Stretching in a great semicircle from the coast of Florida to Venezuela, there lies a great string of islands known as the West Indies. It was on one of them, now known as Watling Island, that Columbus made his first landing in 1492. As you read in Chapter 3, many Spaniards came to the West Indies, some to become planters and raise tobacco, cotton, and sugar, some to use the islands as a base for their raids upon the Indians of the mainland.

Spain was a powerful nation in the sixteenth century. Her discoveries in America made her richer and more powerful than ever. But the population of Spain was not large enough to spare many colonists to settle and hold the islands of the West Indies and the areas she claimed in Mexico, Central and South America. Other nations began to dispute Spain's claims. They, too, wanted to share in the wealth of the New World. English, Dutch, and French sailors came, some to raid Spanish ships and settlements, some to settle in the islands not yet occupied by Spain.



During the reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1558-1603), Spain and England were not on friendly terms. Philip of Spain had been married to Elizabeth's half-sister, Mary, and wanted to marry Elizabeth when she became Queen, but she refused him. Spain was becoming very rich and powerful, and the people of England feared that the large navy Spain was building might be sent to invade England. Elizabeth tried to avoid war as long as possible but she did not discourage English seamen from attacking Spanish treasure ships or the Spanish possessions in America.

Although Spain said that no one could trade with her colonies, that did not stop some of the English sea-dogs. Sir John Hawkins sold boatloads of slaves from Africa to the Spanish plantation owners in the West Indies. From selling slaves to attacks upon the Spanish settlements to seize their treasure was a short step. Since England and Spain were not at war, these sea-dogs were not sent out officially by the Queen, but she did buy shares in some of these ventures. Certainly she did not discourage them, for she took her share of the plunder, and made Sir John Hawkins Treasurer and Controller of the navy.

Sir Francis Drake became the most famous of these sea-dogs. He made so many raids upon Spanish settlements and captured so many Spanish ships laden with gold and silver from Mexico and Peru that the Spanish called him "The Master Thief of the Unknown World". Philip of Spain offered a huge reward to anyone who could capture this bold English sailor.

Drake set out on one of his expeditions in 1577. He seized treasure from Spanish ships, sailed through the Strait of Magellan and along the west coast of America as far as California, where he encountered more Spanish ships, which he robbed of their treasure. Knowing that it

Sir Francis Drake was knighted by Queen Elizabeth for his marauding exploits against Spanish treasure ships.

would be dangerous to return by the Strait of Magellan and the Atlantic, he sailed westward to the East Indies. He visited several islands, refitted and repaired his ship at Java, sailed round the Cape of Good Hope, and reached England in 1580. He was thus the first Englishman to sail round the world. Queen Elizabeth visited his ship and knighted him, pleased not only by this achievement, but also by his success in plundering the Spaniards. Before long Drake was in the seas around the West Indies attacking Spanish ships again.

Men like Sir Francis Drake were no ordinary pirates. They knew that Spain was England's enemy. England was a Protestant country; Spain was Roman Catholic. It was a period of religious wars. Drake's aim was "to seek God's enemies and Her Majesty's wherever they may be found".

Later Drake sailed into the harbour of Cadiz, in Spain, and burned thirty-three Spanish ships. He called this exploit "singeing the King of Spain's beard". He was one of the outstanding sea-captains in the battle against the Spanish Armada in 1588. In 1595 he died at sea on his way to plunder once more the Spanish settlements in the West Indies.

THE FIRST BRITISH SETTLERS

The first permanent British settlement made in the West Indies was on the island of St. Christopher, so named by Columbus in 1493. To-day it is called St. Kitts. It is a small island, about twenty-three miles long with a total area of only sixty-eight square miles. Thomas Warner, with his wife and thirteen-year-old son and twelve adventurers from England, landed there in January, 1623. Although their first tobacco crop was poor and their buildings were destroyed by a hurricane, they did not abandon the venture and the next year had a good crop.

Shortly after Warner and his party arrived, some French settlers came to St. Kitts and settled six miles away from the English settlement. The French and the English decided there was room for them both. They realized, too, that both would be glad to have help if they were attacked by the Carib Indians, the fierce cannibal tribe that lived on the island.

By 1629 there were about three thousand English on St. Kitts. That year the Spaniards attacked and destroyed the settlements and drove most of the English home to

England. A few hundred, however, escaped to the mountains, and as soon as the Spanish ships sailed away, these hardy planters returned to rebuild their homes and till their land.

Settlements were made in Barbados in 1625, Nevis in 1628, Antigua and Montserrat in 1632. These settlements were always in danger of attacks by the Spaniards or by pirates of other nations and of trouble with the Indians. During the wars between France and Britain during the eighteenth century, there was a great deal of fighting in the West Indies and settlements were taken by the French, restored to the British, taken again by the French and again restored to the British.

To-day Spain has no possessions in the West Indies. Some of the islands are independent republics, some which were formerly British colonies belong to the West Indian Federation within the British Commonwealth of Nations, and others belong to France, the United States, or the Netherlands. The British islands include the Bahamas, the Leeward Islands, the Windward Islands, Barbados, Jamaica, and Trinidad. Jamaica was taken from Spain in 1655 and Trinidad in 1797.

SUGAR AND SLAVERY

Although the planters raised tobacco and cotton, by the middle of the seventeenth century sugar became the most important crop in most of the islands. Sugar-cane is not native to the West Indies. Columbus brought the first plants from Spain in 1493 and they grew well. Before long there were sugar mills in the Spanish colonies, some run by water-power, some by horse-power. The English probably planted sugar-cane soon after they settled on the islands, but it was some time before they learned satisfactory methods of turning the sugar-cane into sugar, molasses, and rum.

Negro slaves work long and hard in the hot sun, bringing in sugar-cane for wealthy plantation owners.

To be profitable, sugar-growing must be done on a large scale by cheap labour. Slave traders brought plenty of cheap labour from the shores of Africa and sold the unhappy Negroes to any planters who could afford to buy. Sugar also required expensive equipment for the refineries. Since small planters could not afford enough slaves or equipment, well-to-do planters bought up large areas, established huge sugar plantations, and made great fortunes. When slavery was abolished, the prosperity of the islands declined, but in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries Britain considered her colonies in the West Indies very valuable, more important to her than Canada or some of the American colonies.

CROSSROADS OF THE BUCCANEERS

From the earliest days after the discovery of the new lands, the ships of one nation had attacked the ships and settlements of other nations. Sir Francis Drake, Sir John

Hawkins and Sir Walter Raleigh, as we have seen, had plundered Spanish ships and raided Spanish settlements. Plunder, however, was not their only aim. Spain was England's enemy and they were trying to reduce her power. They were not paid by the government of England for their efforts, and the loot they took was their reward. Later, Dutch and French ships also attacked the Spaniards. French and English ships attacked each other and raided each other's settlements when their countries were at war, and sometimes when they were not at war. This was considered patriotic, for the greater glory of their country.

Later, however, came the buccaneers, who were pirates for profit. True, they attacked ships and raided the settlements of other nations. They kept on good terms with their own country, if they could, so that they would have a refuge in time of difficulty and a market in which to sell their plunder. Sometimes, their own government put some of the buccaneers in jail or even hanged them for piracy when other nations complained about their attacks. Very often, however, the government of the nation to which they belonged took no action. Captain Henry Morgan, a Welsh sailor who was one of the most cruel and brutal of the buccaneers, was given a title by the King of England and sent to Jamaica as lieutenant-governor.

Tortuga became headquarters for many of the buccaneers. Each group had very strict rules: the plunder they took must be divided equally among them, and provision made for the wounded and for the families of those who were killed in their ventures. These men fought with desperate courage, but they were very cruel to the people they plundered.

The era of the buccaneers and pirates came to an end about 1825 when governments began to enforce the laws against them more strictly. For many years after 1825 there were no major wars between the powerful nations. No country was willing to run the risk of trouble with another country over its pirates. The navies of the powerful nations hunted down the pirates who were threatening peaceful shipping and brought them to trial.

For Further Study

1. Make a mural of the early history of Newfoundland. You might include the arrival of John Cabot in the *Mathew*, fishermen in the harbour of St. John's, Sir Humphrey Gilbert and his men, conflict between the French and the English settlers, the governor burning a settler's hut. You will think of many more scenes you could add.
2. Until it became part of Canada in 1949, Newfoundland issued its own stamps. It would be possible to illustrate the story of Newfoundland with its stamps—its history, geography, industries, wild life, and its scenery. Look up Ruth Anderson's book *Discovering Newfoundland Through Stamps* (School Aids and Textbook Publishing Company, Regina). Add as many as you can to your collection.
3. Imagine that you are the captain of Sir Humphrey Gilbert's *Golden Hind*. Tell the story of your expedition to a friend.
4. Find out why Newfoundland has become so important to-day to Canada and the United States.
5. Prepare a speech such as Captain John Smith might have made to the colonists of Virginia telling them what they must do in order to survive.
6. Make a mural depicting the slave trade in the colonies. You might have scenes showing the slaves being brought off the boat, being sold in the market place, working in the fields.

7. Imagine you are one of the settlers who had gone to Roanoke Island and then returned to England with Sir Francis Drake. Describe your experiences to your friends after you return to England and tell why you wanted to come home.

8. Write a letter such as one of the Pilgrims might have written to a friend in England after his first year in Massachusetts.

9. Make a mural depicting life in early New England. You might include the landing of the settlers at Plymouth, building the settlement, the first Thanksgiving, defending the settlement against the Indians, a school in New England.

10. Add the *Mathew*, Drake's *Golden Hind*, Gilbert's *Squirrel*, and the *Mayflower* to your book of ships.

11. Read Longfellow's poem, *The Courtship of Miles Standish.*

12. One group in the class might prepare a report on the life of a Negro slave, another a report of the story of an indentured servant, another a report on the life of the boys and girls on a prosperous southern plantation.

13. Dramatize the story of the founding of Pennsylvania. You might use these scenes: William Penn receiving a grant of land from Charles II; a meeting of Quakers in England at which a speaker tells about the opportunities in the new land; a group of Quakers who have been two years in Pennsylvania discussing conditions there and the problems they have to meet.

14. Read Washington Irving's *The Legend of Sleepy Hollow.* It is an amusing story about a trick played on the schoolmaster by his rival in love. Another good book about the early Dutch days in New York is Irving's *Rip Van Winkle.*

15. Write a report such as Sir George Somers might have prepared about his voyage to Bermuda and Virginia.

16. Write a report such as Sir Francis Drake might have made to Queen Elizabeth when he returned from his voyage round the world.

17. "Sugar was the key to the prosperity of the West Indian Islands." Why are they no longer so prosperous?

18. Some of the most famous pirates were Edward Teach, who was called Blackbeard, William Dampier of England who rescued Alexander Selkirk from a tropical isle, Captain William

Kidd of Scotland, some of whose treasure was found by early colonists near Long Island Sound, Jean Lafitte, born in France but using New Orleans as his headquarters, who helped the Americans against the British in the War of 1812-14. Two of the most brutal were François l'Ollonois of France and Sir Henry Morgan from Wales. Find out more about some of these pirates.

VIR
GINIA
SECOTAN

IV. *Fur-Traders Open Up the Continent*

19. Champlain's Young Men

"Something hidden. Go and find it.
  Go and look beyond the ranges—
Something lost beyond the ranges.
  Lost and waiting for you. Go!"

RUDYARD KIPLING: *The Explorers*

The French did not find in Canada the gold and precious gems they sought. For many years furs were Canada's only export. To the fur-traders belongs the credit for most of the exploration of the new land. Some of the traders, like Champlain, were explorers at heart and counted on the fur trade to pay the cost of their expeditions. Others sought only profit for themselves. The story of the ventures of the fur-traders is the story of the exploration of our country. Truly, the fur trade may be called the life-blood of the colony.

Before Champlain came to Canada, he had been a geographer and map-maker. He longed to add to the world's knowledge of this new land. Realizing that the fur trade would have to pay the cost of exploration, he wanted to make friends of the Indians who could supply the colony with furs. He sent young men to live with the Hurons and Algonquins, hoping that they would learn the language and the customs of the Indians. He hoped, too, that they would come back to him with news of a passage to the Western Sea. Some of his young men served him well, but others brought him only grief and disappointment.

"THE MOST SHAMELESS LIAR EVER BORN"

Champlain sent Nicholas Vignau to spend a winter with the Algonquins. When Vignau returned in the spring he reported to Champlain that he had seen the North Sea and that on its shores he had seen the wreck of an English ship. He declared that he had seen the scalps of Englishmen who had been killed by the Indians for trying to seize their supplies of corn. He assured Champlain that the Indians had a captive English lad who would be given to Champlain if he visited them. A party could go, according to Vignau, up the Ottawa to the North Sea and back in seventeen days.

Champlain was delighted with this report. In his journal he wrote, "This intelligence greatly pleased me, for I thought that I had almost found that for which I had a long time been searching."

Bitter disappointment was in store for Champlain. In the spring of 1613 he set out with Vignau to find the North Sea. Vignau made every excuse for delaying. When they met the chief of the Algonquins at Lake Allumette, Champlain spoke of Vignau's expedition of the previous winter, and found out that the whole story about the North Sea was a lie. The chief told him that Vignau had spent the previous winter with his tribe. Champlain declared Vignau "the most shameless liar ever born".

Champlain orders Vignau from his presence.

"Overcome with wrath," Champlain wrote in his journal, "I had him removed, being unable to endure him longer in my presence."

The Indians wanted to kill Vignau for his deceit, but Champlain spared his life. The liar's punishment was that he had to confess his misdeeds to the assembled French traders when the expedition returned to New France.

THE LADS WHO BECAME TRAITORS TO FRANCE

When Champlain came to the St. Lawrence in 1608 he had with him two boys, Etienne Brûlé and Nicholas Marsolet. Brûlé was probably fourteen, Marsolet a little older. These two were among the eight who survived that first terrible winter, the winter of 1608, in Quebec.

They were bright boys. Without making any great effort, they picked up the Indian language and adapted themselves to the Indian way of living. They learned to endure the dirt, the smell, and the smoke of the Indian wigwams. Champlain and the missionaries found it hard to eat the food the Indians gave them, but the boys were not troubled by any concern as to whether the food was clean or not.

When Brûlé suggested that he would like to spend a winter among the Algonquins to learn their language and their customs, Champlain agreed to arrange it. "I want you, also," he instructed Brûlé, "to observe the country, its rivers and communications. Find out about minerals. If possible, make your way westward to the great lake. Keep your eyes open and on your return make a good report of what will be useful to us."

Brûlé spent a winter among the Algonquins, and, later, one among the Hurons. He learned their languages so well that he became Champlain's chief interpreter. We

Etienne Brûlé lives among the Indians, like one of them.

do not know exactly where Brûlé went. He does not seem to have kept any journal of his travels. Probably he could not read or write. When, from time to time, he returned to the settlement, he told Champlain about his wanderings, and Champlain made notes about them in his journals.

From careful study of Champlain's writings, historians have concluded that Brûlé was the first white man to see Lake Huron, Lake Erie, and Lake Superior. They agree that he crossed over to the country south-east of the Great Lakes, and that on one of his expeditions he travelled overland as far south as Chesapeake Bay.

When David Kirke took Quebec in 1629, Champlain was dismayed to find that two of his company were Etienne Brûlé and Nicholas Marsolet. The lads who had been with him the first winter in Quebec, his best interpreters, had sold their honour to the enemy. He turned upon them with scorn.

"To think of you, brought up from boyhood in these parts, turning round now and selling those who put bread in your mouths," he said. "You will be pointed at with scorn on all sides wherever you may be. 'These are the men,' people will say, 'who betrayed their King and sold their country.' Better would it be for you to die than to live in the world under such conditions, for whatever happens, you will always have a worm gnawing at your conscience."

Champlain was more fortunate when he sent Jean Nicolet out to the western country. Nicolet had come to Canada when he was eighteen years old, and had spent eight years with the Nipissing Indians. He liked the Indians and the Indians liked him.

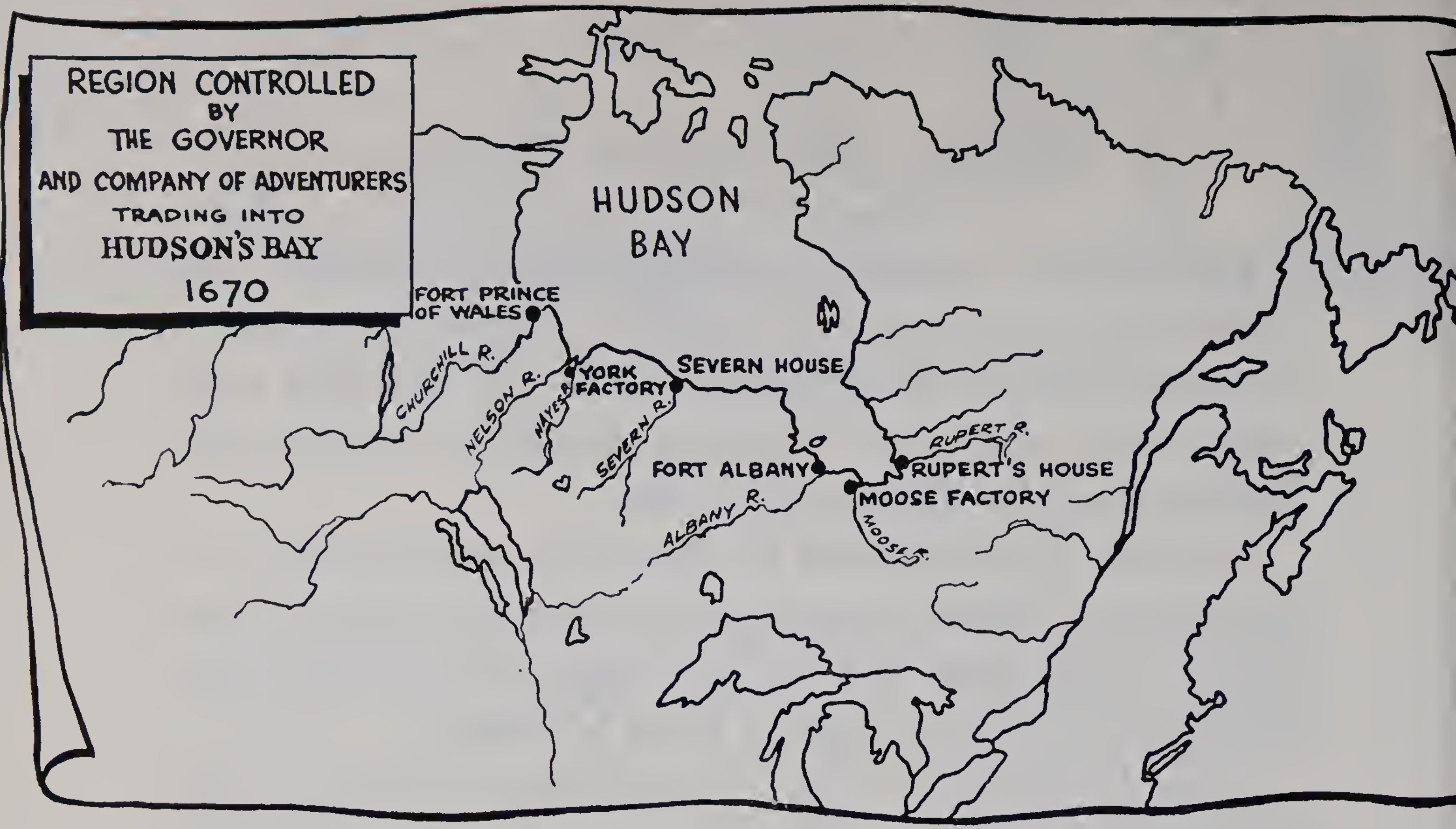
In 1634 Nicolet set out for the west, accompanied by a missionary, Father Vimont, who wrote the story of their travels. They went to Sault Ste. Marie, to Lake Michigan, and into the country west of Lake Michigan.

"The Indians met him," wrote Father Vimont. "They escorted him and carried his baggage. He wore a fine robe of China damask all strewn with flowers and birds of many colours. No sooner did they perceive him than the women and children fled at the sight of the man who carried thunder in both hands, for thus they called his pistols."

Nicolet had taken the fine robe of China damask so that he would be properly dressed if he should chance to meet the Emperor of China or of India on his travels. He met only the Indians of the Green Bay area. History does not relate what they thought about his fine robe with its rich embroidery of flowers and birds. We do know, however, that he was successful in persuading the Indians of the district to bring their furs down to the trading-post at Three Rivers in the spring of 1635.

Nicolet was one of Champlain's young men who did not bring grief and disappointment to his leader.

Nicolet impresses the Indians with his beautiful robe.



20. The Founding of the Hudson's Bay Company

> "They vanish in the wilderness, go forth mysteriously,
> And ere a year be passed, return with half a kingdom
> for their spoil."
>
> O. J. Stevenson: *Pathfinders*

The story of the founding of the Hudson's Bay Company is one of the strangest imaginable. It is a drama in which kings and courtiers rub shoulders with French-Canadian fur-traders and English sea-dogs. Its scenes are laid, not only on the cold barren shores of Hudson Bay, but also in London and Paris, in Quebec and Boston, and on the Great Lakes and the rivers and lakes north of Lake Superior.

The King was Charles II of England. The most famous of the courtiers was his cousin, Prince Rupert. The French fur-traders were Pierre Radisson and his brother-in-law, Groseilliers, nicknamed by their English friends, "Mr. Radishes" and "Mr. Gooseberry".

When Pierre Radisson was a boy in his teens, he was taken captive by the Iroquois. Usually the Indians tortured their prisoners and put them to death, but for some reason they did not kill Pierre. An Iroquois family adopted him. During his captivity he learned their language. He learned how they hunted, how they travelled, how they made war. He heard about the tribes in the north-west who lived in a territory rich in fur-bearing animals.

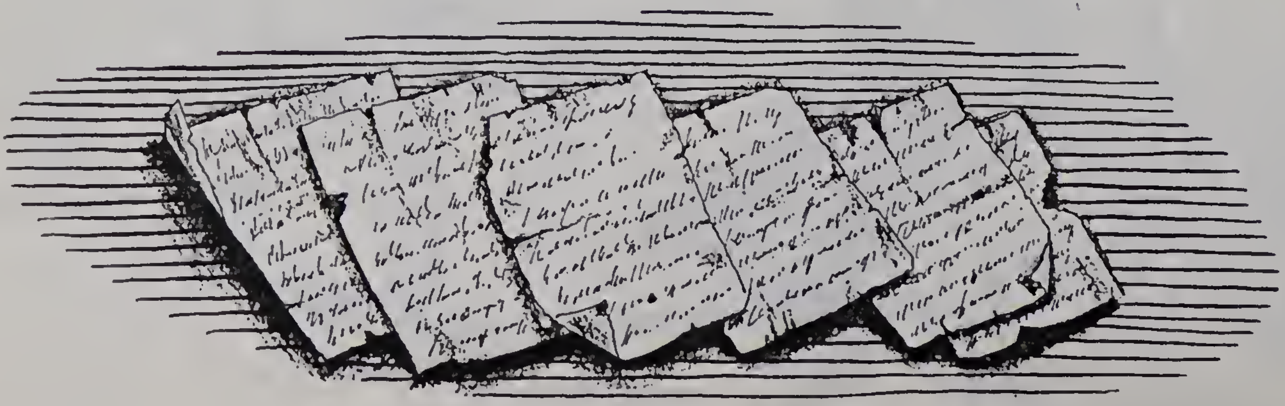
After a few years Radisson escaped and returned to his home in Three Rivers. He told his friends about his life with the Indians and about the furs they might get if they dared to go up into the Indian country. His brother-in-law, Groseilliers, decided to go with Pierre to trade with the western Indians.

There is some doubt as to when the two adventurers set forth. Historians, who have studied the records carefully, think it was probably in the year 1659. The canoes were loaded with goods for trade—hatchets, knives, sword-blades, awls, needles, brass rings, ivory and wooden combs, tin mirrors, small bells, red paint, necklaces, and beads.

Young Radisson is captured by the Iroquois. While with the Indians he learns many things which prove useful to him when he becomes a fur-trader.

These hardy traders made their way up the St. Lawrence and up the Ottawa River. Later, when they were trying to secure English support for their ventures, Pierre Radisson wrote the story of their journey. His account of his explorations was found about a century ago, with other papers belonging to the diary of Samuel Pepys, a gentleman of King Charles' Court. How Pepys got Radisson's journal no one knows. Possibly the King gave it to him to read and he kept it. A London shopkeeper had bought the paper and was using it for wrapping paper when someone discovered that these sheets were diaries for which historians had been searching for years. A scholar, named Rawlinson, bought what remained of the papers and gave them for safe-keeping to a library at Oxford.

Many people have read Radisson's journal and have tried to find out exactly where the party went. It is hard to tell, because, of course, the rivers and lakes on which they travelled did not have the names they have now. Moreover, Radisson did not write his story of the journey until many years after it had taken place. It is quite probable that he had forgotten some of the details. Most of the scholars who have read Radisson's story believe that the partners went up the Ottawa River, across to Lake Huron, into Lake Michigan, out into the country which lies west of Lake Michigan, north again to Lake Superior, and along its shores. There they heard from the Indians about the "Salt Water", which was several days' journey north of Lake Superior. To-day we know that this "Salt Water" was James Bay.



THEIR VENTURE IS SUCCESSFUL

The animals that live in the cold north have longer, thicker fur than the animals of the south. The furs which Radisson and Groseilliers obtained around Lake Superior were of high quality. They returned to New France with a very valuable cargo of fine furs.

THE GOVERNOR WANTS TO SHARE THE PROFITS

This expedition was so successful that these two adventurous Frenchmen wanted to make another trip. They asked the governor of New France for permission to go among the western Indians again to trade for furs. The governor, aware that they had made a lot of money from their earlier trip, thought that he might make them share the profits of this venture with him. He suggested that he would send two men with them. This made Radisson and Groseilliers very angry. One night they stole away without the governor's permission.

Again the partners went up the Ottawa, across Lake Huron, and into Lake Superior, and north of Lake Superior to Lake Nipigon. Some historians believe that they made their way to the "Salt Water" of James Bay. Certainly these French adventurers learned about the Bay, either by visiting it or from the Indians.

Once more Radisson and Groseilliers brought back a great cargo of valuable furs. They thought they had made a fortune. But the governor seized their furs and kept most of them.

THEY LOOK FOR SOMEONE TO FINANCE ANOTHER EXPEDITION

Radisson and Groseilliers were furious. They went to Paris to obtain justice but they found no help there. Then they outfitted an expedition to go by sea to Hudson Bay,

Radisson and Groseilliers seek the patronage of Charles II.

but they were driven back by the ice. They went to Boston, hoping for support from some of the merchants there for the project. In Boston, they met Colonel George Cartwright who became interested in their story and undertook to interest the King of England in the venture. Radisson and Groseilliers did not care whether they worked with the English or with the French. They wanted to make profits out of the fur trade.

CHARLES II LISTENED TO THE STORIES

Charles II listened to the stories of these two coureurs de bois who had penetrated into the heart of North America. Charles, who was always in need of money, was interested in any venture which promised rich returns, but at that time he was too busy to arrange for an expedition. The two Frenchmen waited impatiently, eager to get back to the business of trading for furs. At last Prince Rupert, a cousin of King Charles, persuaded several gentlemen of the court to join him in outfitting an expedition.

In the spring of 1668 two ships set out, with Radisson in command of the *Eaglet*, Groseilliers of the *Nonsuch*.

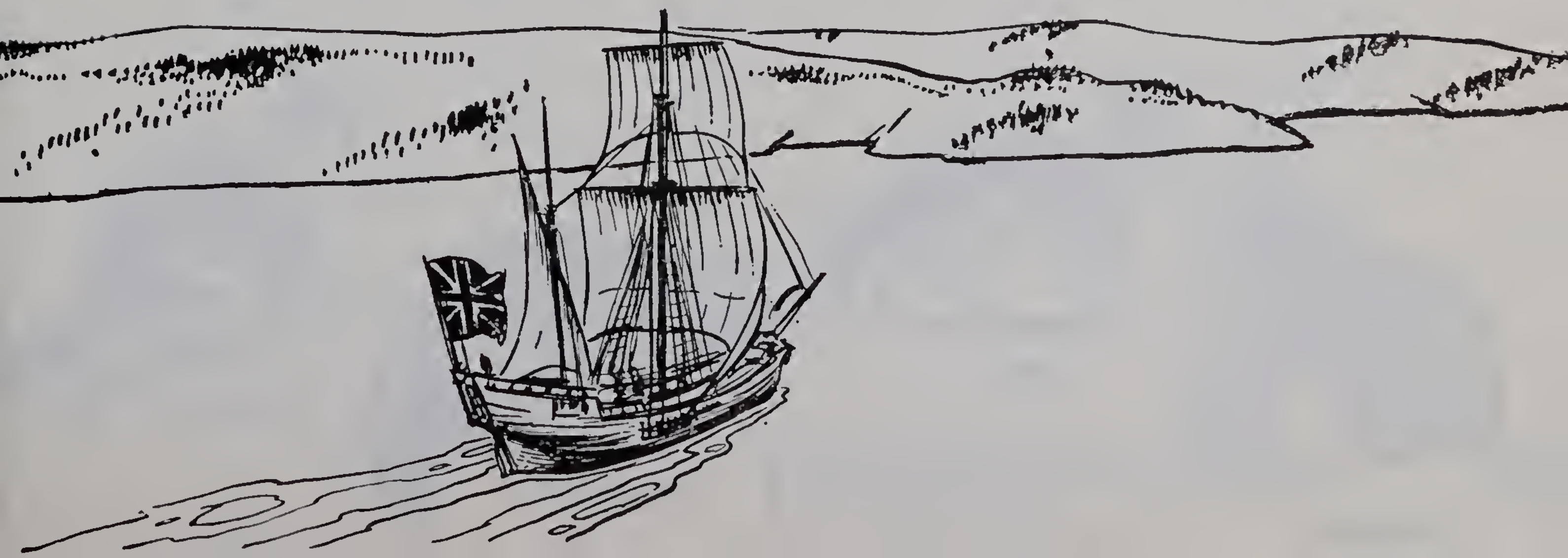
The traders were told to trade for furs, to search for valuable minerals, such as gold, silver, and copper, and to try to find the North-West Passage to Asia. Every fur-trading party that went out to the north or to the west hoped to find it, or to find out something about it.

Radisson had bad luck on his first expedition from England. There was a great storm at sea, and the *Eaglet* was so badly damaged that he had to turn back to England. Meanwhile Groseilliers and his men on board the *Nonsuch* reached James Bay safely. At the mouth of a river which they named the Rupert after their patron, Prince Rupert, they built a small fort which they called Fort Charles in honour of Charles II of England. Fort Charles later was called Rupert's House.

It was very cold on the shores of the great bay. The Englishmen were not used to such cold weather. "All the world seemed frozen into death," declared the captain.

The Indians had plenty of beaver skins, and they were willing to trade. They wanted the hatchets, the knives, and the brass kettles which the white men had brought. Above all, they wanted the guns, the powder, and the shot. They said, "The true means to get victory is to have a thunder." "Thunder" was the word they used to describe the white man's gun.

The *Nonsuch* flies the British flag in James Bay.



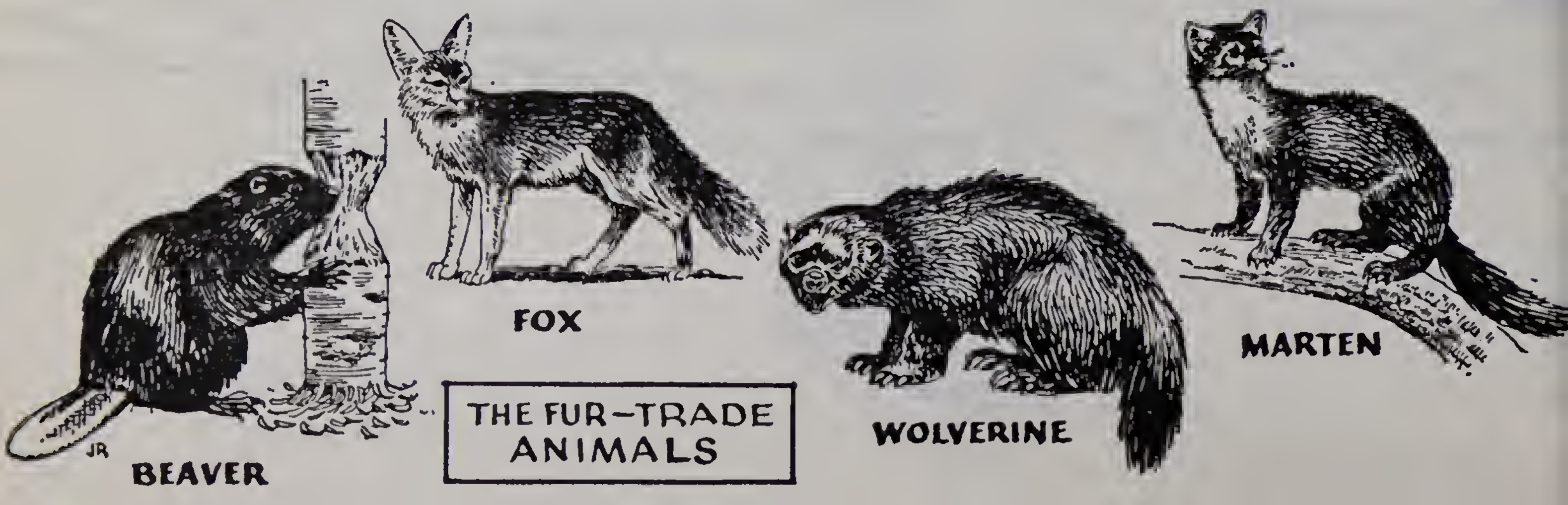
In the summer the *Nonsuch* returned to England with a rich cargo of beaver skins.

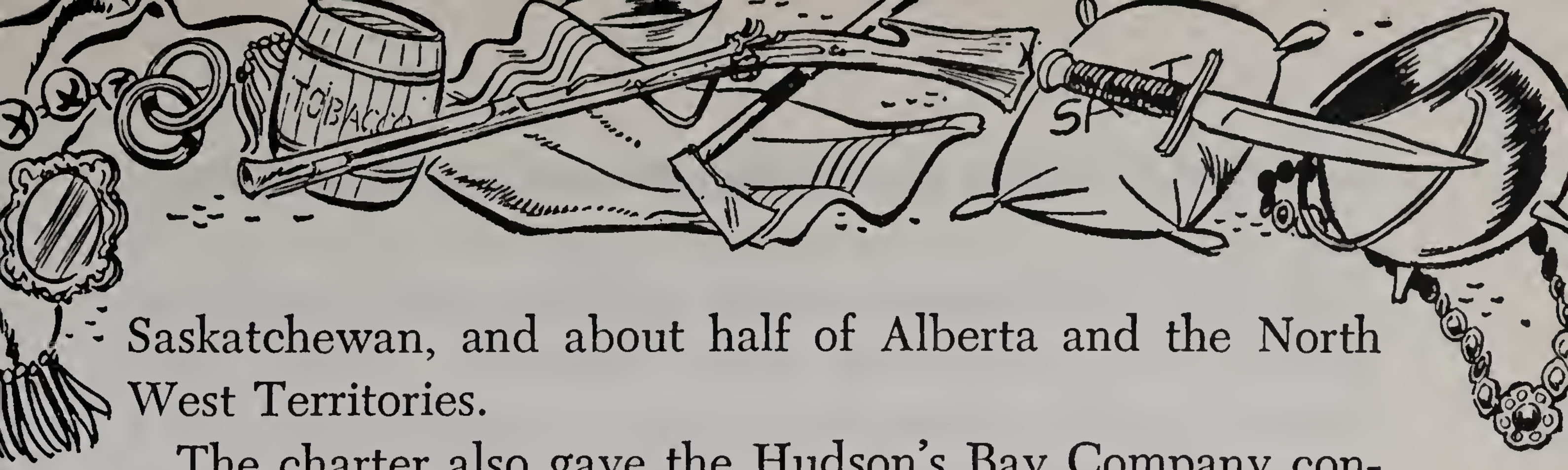
Radisson and Groseilliers were not satisfied with the rewards the English company gave them for their services. They went back to New France where Groseilliers settled down on his farm. But Radisson was still eager to make a fortune in the fur trade, and, not finding it possible under the government of New France, he returned once more to work with the Hudson's Bay Company. The Englishmen did not trust this French adventurer and Radisson was never satisfied with the treatment he received from them. The daring explorer who contributed so much to the opening up of the fur trade both for France and for England died in London in poverty.

THE HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY RECEIVES ITS CHARTER

Prince Rupert and his friends were delighted with the results of this trial voyage. They promptly applied to the King for a charter for their company. On May 2nd, 1670, a charter was granted to the Governor and Company of Adventurers Trading into Hudson's Bay—the formal title of the company we know as the Hudson's Bay Company.

This charter gave the Hudson's Bay Company very great power, probably more than either the King or the Company realized at the time. It gave it full control of the fur trade with the Indians in all the country drained by all the rivers that flow into Hudson Bay. That is a very large part of Canada. It takes in the north-western part of Quebec, a large part of northern Ontario, all of Manitoba, most of





Saskatchewan, and about half of Alberta and the North West Territories.

The charter also gave the Hudson's Bay Company control of the fisheries, and of all the minerals, gold, silver, and copper found in that country. The company was also given the right to make laws, not only for its own servants, but for all the inhabitants of this great area under their control.

The Hudson's Bay Company soon found that it would be profitable to have several trading-posts. All travelling in that country was by canoe on the rivers. Therefore the traders built their posts at the mouths of rivers and sent word to the Indians to bring their furs down to the posts. They built a post called Moose Factory at the mouth of the Moose River. Then they built Fort Albany at the mouth of the Albany River, Severn House on the Severn, and York Factory between the mouth of the Hayes River and the Nelson. Later they built Fort Prince of Wales at the mouth of the Churchill River.

It must have made the French very angry when they remembered that, if it had not been for the greedy governor, this territory and its trade might have been theirs.

21. The Unlucky Seignior of China

> "An eye of power, a knightly heart,
> A patient purpose silence-nursed."
> THOMAS D'ARCY McGEE: *The Launch of the Griffin*

One of the suburbs of the city of Montreal to-day is the town of Lachine. The name Lachine is the French equivalent for "China". The story of how such a strange name attached itself to this town has a good deal of interest for readers of Canadian history.

LA SALLE DREAMS OF DISCOVERING THE ROUTE TO CHINA

In 1667 the land on which Lachine now stands was granted to a young man from Normandy, named René Robert Cavelier, Sieur de la Salle. La Salle had been a friend of Talon in France. In 1667 he followed his friend to Canada, hoping to carve out for himself a career in the New World. For two or three years he lived on his seigniory, trading with the Indians, but it was not long before he became discontented with the uneventful life of a fur-trader. He wanted to win fame and glory. He dreamed of discovering the western passage to China. It may be that he had heard from the Indians the story of rivers that led to a Western Sea. It may be that his nature was too bold, too restless, too ambitious to let him be content on his quiet seigniory.

When he heard that two missionaries were setting out for the west in 1669 to found missions there, he arranged to go with them. Even the missionaries seem to have regarded him as a dreamer. People seemed to be amused at his idea of trying to find a route to China. In their amusement they named his seigniory "Lachine". It was, they doubtless said among themselves, the only China he would ever see.

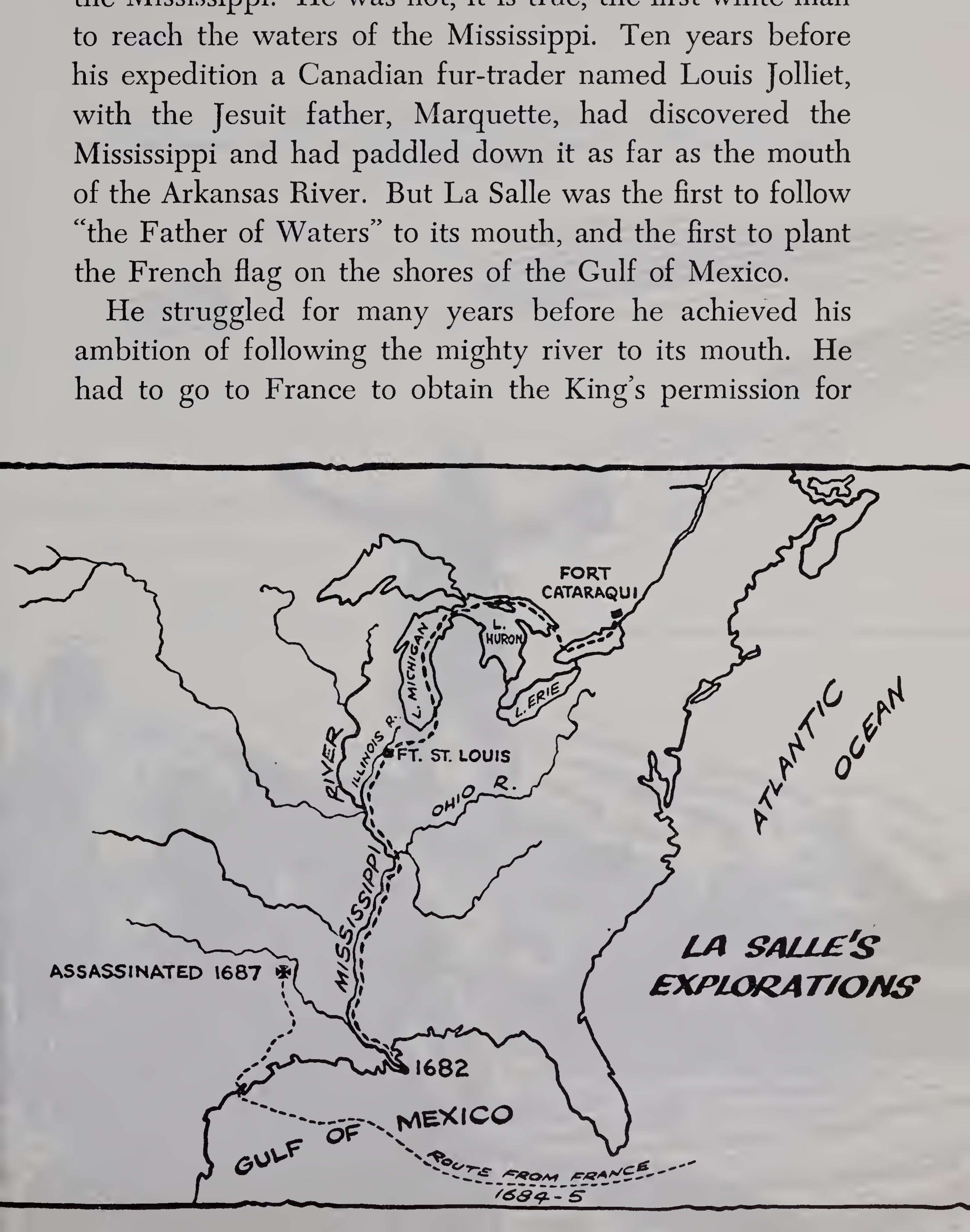
HIS ACHIEVEMENTS WERE MANY BUT HE DID NOT FIND A ROUTE TO CHINA

They were right. Neither in 1669 nor later did La Salle discover the route to China. But in the remaining years of his short life he did several things almost as important. He travelled farther into the interior of North America than any white man before his time. He founded a fur-trading post, Fort Cataraqui, on the site of the present city of Kingston. He explored part of the Ohio River. He was the first man to build and launch a sailing vessel, the famous *Griffin*, on Lake Erie. He was the first white man to explore the Mississippi to its mouth, and he led the way for those who later founded the French colony of Louisiana.

HE EXPLORED THE MISSISSIPPI TO ITS MOUTH

La Salle's greatest achievement was his exploration of the Mississippi. He was not, it is true, the first white man to reach the waters of the Mississippi. Ten years before his expedition a Canadian fur-trader named Louis Jolliet, with the Jesuit father, Marquette, had discovered the Mississippi and had paddled down it as far as the mouth of the Arkansas River. But La Salle was the first to follow "the Father of Waters" to its mouth, and the first to plant the French flag on the shores of the Gulf of Mexico.

He struggled for many years before he achieved his ambition of following the mighty river to its mouth. He had to go to France to obtain the King's permission for



his venture. Then he had to spend a year at Fort Cataraqui on Lake Ontario making preparations for his expedition.

It was not until 1679 that he was able to set out. As lieutenant he had a brave Italian officer, the Chevalier de Tonti, known as Tonti of the Iron Hand, because one of his hands was a steel claw. With them they had two

La Salle stands at the mouth of the Mississippi River and gazes joyfully out over the Gulf of Mexico. He rejoices to be able to claim this vast territory for France.

priests and a number of canoe-men and coureurs de bois. The party reached the Illinois River the first winter.

Various misfortunes delayed them, and it was not until the spring of 1682 that he and his men reached the junction of the Illinois and the Mississippi. They followed the winding course of the great Mississippi until, on April 9, they came at last to the salt water of the Gulf of Mexico. He claimed the land for France and named it Louisiana in honour of Louis XIV.

HE DREAMED OF A GREAT FRENCH EMPIRE ON THE GULF OF MEXICO

La Salle was clever enough to realize the importance of what he had done. He saw that by his journey he had drawn a net about the English colonies on the Atlantic seaboard. If the French could keep this vast area which he had crossed, they would be able to hem the English in to a narrow strip along the Atlantic coast. Perhaps the French would be strong enough some day to drive their rivals into the sea. New France would no longer be a small colony on the banks of the St. Lawrence. It would become a great empire stretching from the Gulf of the St. Lawrence to the Gulf of Mexico, the ruling power in the new continent.

The first thing to be done was to make sure that France had possession of the land around the mouth of the Mississippi. La Salle hurried back to Quebec and took a ship for France with the greatest possible speed. There he persuaded the minister in charge of colonial affairs to outfit an expedition to found a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi. In the spring of 1684 the expedition set out. Four vessels carried two hundred and eighty colonists to claim this new empire for France.

Few men have ever been as unlucky as La Salle. He had no skill in making his followers loyal to him. His men were frequently in a state of mutiny against him. His creditors seized his goods when he was away on an expedition and he had to postpone his exploration to go home and straighten out his affairs. He had more than a normal number of shipwrecks in which all the furs which he had obtained from the Indians were lost or ruined. He often fell ill just when he most needed to be strong and able to meet difficulties. Seldom has any explorer encountered so many misfortunes. Yet no obstacle but death was powerful enough to stop him.

It must have seemed that good fortune was with him when he succeeded in winning the support of the minister of France and set out with four ships and two hundred and eighty men. But no—by ill luck he missed the entrance to the Mississippi and, sailing past it, landed on what is now the coast of Texas. Here his supply ship went to pieces on a reef, and nearly everything on board was lost. The other ships, once they landed their passengers, returned to France. The unfortunate La Salle was left with his colonists on an unknown and desolate shore.

He tried to find the mouth of the Mississippi, but without success. For two years the colony managed to survive, though every day conditions became more difficult. At last, early in 1687, La Salle decided to make an effort to reach the Illinois country. He had gone only a short distance when mutiny broke out. The unfortunate explorer was murdered by one of his own men.

A few survivors of the party reached the junction of the Mississippi and the Arkansas, where La Salle's lieutenant, Tonti, was patiently waiting for them. A few years later a French colony, Louisiana, was established at the mouth of the Mississippi. But La Salle had no part in these achievements. His body lay on the Texas prairie. He had died an inglorious death, in the midst of failure and disappointment, but he had blazed a trail where others followed. Louisiana was his memorial.

LOUISIANA

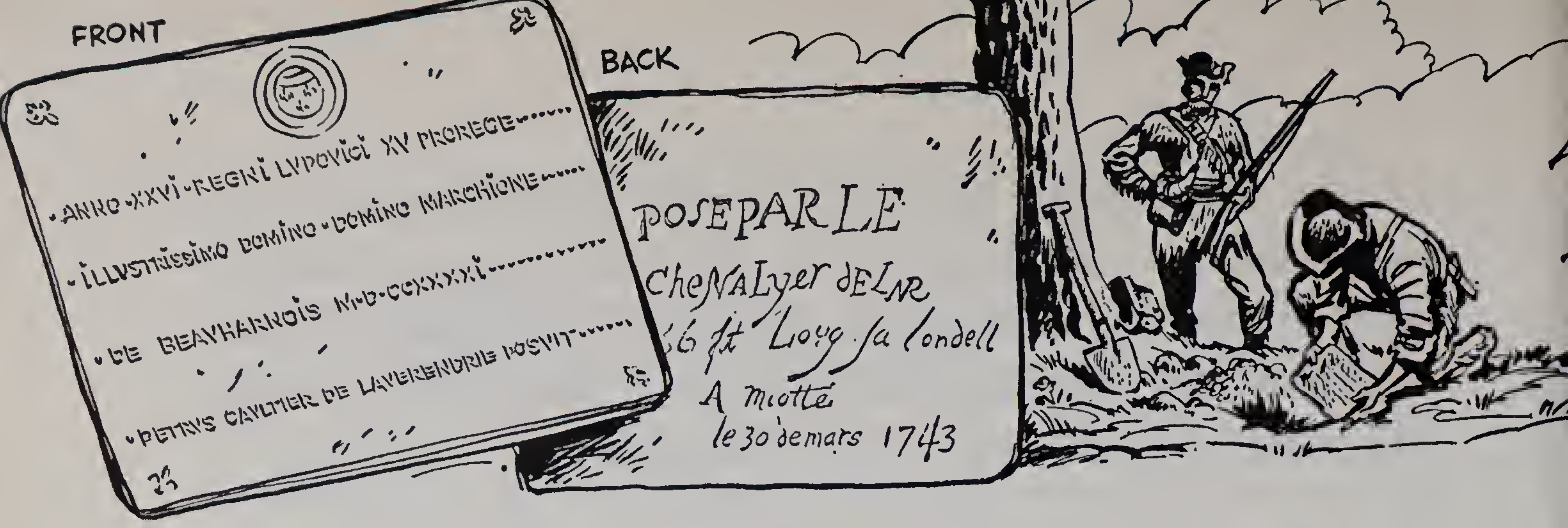
Not long after La Salle died, Pierre Le Moyne d'Iberville and his brother, Bienville, established a settlement at Biloxi. Later, when Bienville was governor, he moved his headquarters to higher land and named it New Orleans. This settlement gave the French control of the lower Mississippi valley and was an important part of the dream of a great French empire in America. Louisiana grew slowly and did not have time to realize its possibilities before the French lost their possessions in America.

22. The Shining Mountains

"There are worlds beyond, there are worlds beyond,
Worlds to be conquered, worlds to be found
By river and desert and burning ground
Even, perchance, by the Ocean-Sea
If a man has courage enough to dare.
And I know that others will follow me
And I mark the road that will take them there."
STEPHEN VINCENT BENET: *The Ballad of Marco Polo*

HATTIE FOSTER'S DISCOVERY

One Sunday in February, 1913, some children were playing on a hill near Pierre, South Dakota. A little girl, named Hattie Foster, stumbled on a small oblong plate of lead on which there was some strange writing and a


FRONT
BACK
ANNO XXVI REGNI LVDOVICI XV PROREGE
ILLVSTRISSIMO DOMINO DOMINO MARCHIONE
DE BEAVHARNOIS MDCCXXXXI
PETRVS GAVLTIER DE LAVERENDRIE POSVIT
POSEPARLE
CheNALyer dELVR
56 ft Louy la londell
A miotte
le 30 de mars 1743

In 1743 François de la Vérendrye built a cairn and in it placed a small leaden plate bearing the coat of arms of the King of France, thus claiming the land for France. In 1913, one hundred and seventy years later, children playing near Pierre, South Dakota, found it.

strange picture. When scholars examined it they discovered on one side the coat of arms of the King of France and a Latin inscription. On the other side, obviously scratched by a knife point, was an inscription in French which may be translated as follows:

PLACED HERE BY THE
CHEVALIER DE LA VERENDRYE
WITNESSES, LOUIS, LA LONDETTE,
AMIOTTE.
MARCH 30TH, 1743

The little leaden plate was a memorial of one of the most daring expeditions ever made by Canadian explorers. The Chevalier de la Vérendrye was François, the third son of Pierre de la Vérendrye. Louis was his younger brother, and La Londette and Amiotte were the two voyageurs who had made the expedition with them.

A DISTINGUISHED FAMILY OF EXPLORERS

The La Vérendrye family set a proud record in exploration. Pierre de la Vérendrye, with his four sons, Jean-Baptiste, Pierre, François, and Louis, and his nephew, de la Jemeraye, opened the map westward over a thousand miles. They were the first white men to travel up the Pigeon River to Rainy Lake and on to the Lake of the Woods by the route later called the Grand Portage. They were the first white men to travel on the Winnipeg River, the Red, and the Assiniboine, the first to visit the country of the Mandan Indians, and the first French traders on the Saskatchewan.

PIERRE DE LA VERENDRYE DETERMINES TO SEEK THE WESTERN SEA

Pierre de la Vérendrye was born in Three Rivers, the son of the governor. After some years of service in the French army, he returned to Canada and entered the fur trade. In 1728, when he was in charge of a trading-post on Lake Nipigon, he heard stories from the Indians about "a mighty river flowing west" and "a vast country devoid of timber with large herds of cattle".

An old Indian named Ochagach drew for La Vérendrye a map which showed rivers emptying into the Western Sea. In those days men believed that the Western Sea was a narrow body of water separating America from Asia. They had no idea how huge the Pacific Ocean was. Ochagach told La Vérendrye of a lake west of Lake Superior out of which a river flowed to the west. The Indian stated that he himself had paddled down this river until he came to a great water which ebbed and flowed.

La Vérendrye thought that Ochagach must have reached the sea where the tides made the waters rise and fall. As a matter of fact, Ochagach was describing Lake Winnipeg. The waters in Lake Winnipeg, which is a very large, very shallow lake, rise and fall with changes of the wind. La Vérendrye was not the only explorer to be misled by the accounts the Indians gave of this great water which ebbed and flowed.

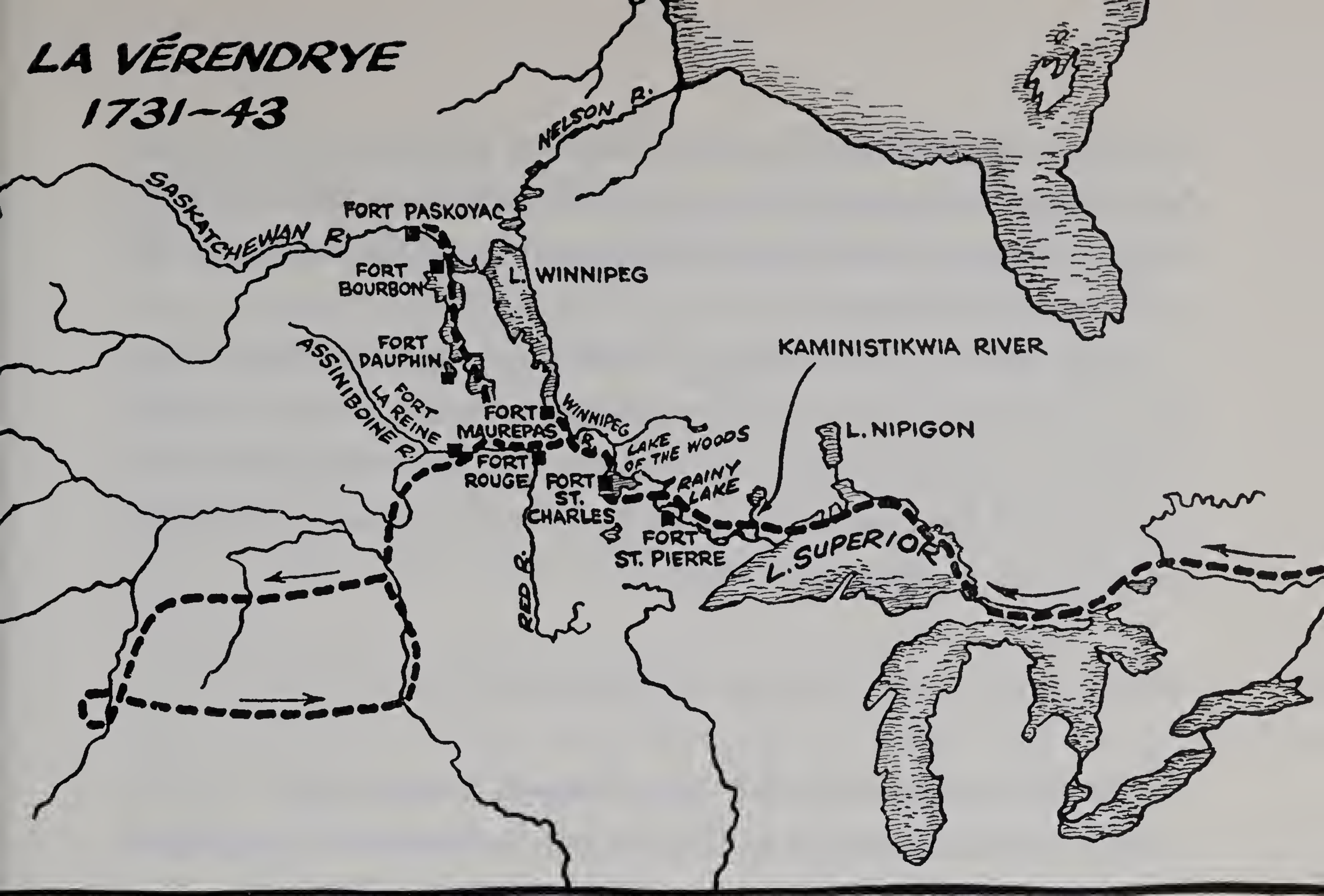
HE PERSUADES SOME MONTREAL MERCHANTS TO INVEST IN HIS ENTERPRISE

In 1730 La Vérendrye went back to New France to urge the governor to persuade the King to equip an expedition and pay the wages of a hundred men. The governor was interested, but the King was not prepared to risk any money on the far-away land. He did, however, agree that La Vérendrye should have a monopoly of the fur trade in the far west. La Vérendrye succeeded in persuading a few Montreal merchants to put up some money. These merchants were not in the least concerned about exploration, but they were greatly interested in profits from the fur trade.

Like La Salle, La Vérendrye dreamed of a great French Empire controlling the route to the riches of China and India, an empire in which his sons and his son's sons would be great and powerful. But La Vérendrye could be practical, too. He realized that if the King would not give him the money for the expedition he must make it out of the fur trade. Therefore he planned to establish, west of Lake Superior, a chain of trading-posts which would handle the furs, and at the same time serve as bases for his explorations.

A CHAIN OF FORTS FROM LAKE SUPERIOR TO THE LAKE OF THE WOODS

In 1731 La Vérendrye set out. With him were his three older sons, his nephew, La Jemeraye, who was an experienced fur-trader and explorer, and a number of voyageurs, about fifty in all. By August they had reached the north-western shore of Lake Superior, where the Kaministikwia flows into the lake, the site of the present city of Fort William.



Some of the voyageurs refused to go farther. La Jemeraye persuaded a few to go on as far as Rainy Lake. About two miles from the present site of Fort Frances, they built Fort St. Pierre, so named after their leader, Pierre de La Vérendrye.

In the spring La Jemeraye returned to the post at the mouth of the Kaministikwia with a cargo of good furs. La Vérendrye's men, seeing that La Jemeraye and his companions had returned safely, agreed to go on. They took a month to reach Fort St. Pierre, and after a short rest there they went on to the Lake of the Woods. There they built Fort St. Charles.

Jean-Baptiste, La Vérendrye's eldest son, pushed on to the mouth of the Winnipeg River, where he built a fort which he called Fort Maurepas. By now the party had built a chain of forts from Lake Superior to the Lake of the Woods. But La Vérendrye could not make enough money out of the fur trade to pay the costs of the expedition. In vain he begged for help from the King. He painted for the merchants a glowing picture of the profitable trade which the French could take from the Hudson's Bay Company, and persuaded them to risk the funds for another expedition.

Bad news was waiting when he rejoined his party. La Jemeraye, the most experienced and most valuable member of his party, had died. Jean-Baptiste had been massacred by the Indians while he was returning with his voyageurs to Fort St. Charles.

FORTS FARTHER WEST

La Vérendrye and his sons hoped to persuade the Indians to sell their furs to the French instead of taking them down to the English forts on Hudson Bay. They therefore established several forts in places where the Indians would not have to travel very far to bring their furs. They built Fort Maurepas on Lake Winnipeg, and Fort Rouge at the junction of the Red and Assiniboine rivers where now stand the cities of Winnipeg and St. Boniface. Fort La Reine, named in honour of the Queen of France, was built near the present site of Portage la Prairie, where there are easy portages to Lake Manitoba. Fort Dauphin was established near the present site of Dauphin. Hoping to intercept the Indians from the upper Saskatchewan area who usually took their furs to York Factory, the French traders also built Fort Bourbon on Cedar Lake, above the point where the Saskatchewan flows into Lake Winnipeg.

THE VISIT TO THE MANDANS

Indians visiting Fort La Reine told La Vérendrye about a tribe called the Mandans, who lived south-west of the fort. From the description, La Vérendrye thought that these Mandans must be white men.

In October, 1738, he set out into the Mandan country. With him he took his sons, Pierre and François, twenty of his best men, and a group of Assiniboine Indians. He could not persuade the Indians to travel quickly and directly to the villages of the Mandans. They insisted on stopping to visit and even on going some miles out of the way to call on their friends. One whole village decided to join the expedition. La Vérendrye was not pleased about having such a large party but there was nothing he could do about it.

He found the Mandan Indians more advanced than any other tribes he had met on the plains. They had better homes, better weapons and equipment, and seemed more intelligent than most of the tribes. But they were not white men, and none of them had seen the Western Sea he sought.

A very embarrassing situation arose. The bag of presents La Vérendrye had brought with him disappeared. The Assiniboine Indians said the Mandans had taken it and the Mandans said that the Assiniboines were the thieves.

The Mandans were very polite to the explorer and his party, but they began to find it rather expensive providing for so many guests. La Vérendrye's uninvited Assiniboine escorts numbered about six hundred. It would not have been courteous for the hosts to ask their guests to leave but they thought of a way out of their difficulty. They started a rumour that the Sioux were on the war-path. The

La Vérendrye and his party stay for some time with the Mandans, a tribe of Indians on the Prairies.

Assiniboines feared this tribe, and, as soon as they heard the Sioux were near, they departed for home as fast as they could. Unfortunately, the Assiniboine interpreter fled with the others and after that the Frenchmen and the Mandans could communicate only by sign language.

La Vérendrye decided to leave two men in the Mandan village to learn the language, and with the rest of the party he started back across the frozen prairie to Fort La Reine. Before he left he thanked the Mandans for their hospitality, gave them what gifts he and his men could spare from their equipment, and claimed the land for the King of France.

FRANÇOIS AND LOUIS SET OUT FOR THE SHINING MOUNTAINS

Next spring the two men who spent the winter with the Mandans returned to Fort La Reine. They told of tribes that lived westward near the "Shining Mountains", of tribes that traded with bearded men who lived away to the west by the waters which were not fit to drink. Because La Vérendrye was himself too ill to undertake a long journey, he entrusted the expedition to his sons. In the spring of 1742, his sons François and Louis, with two voyageurs, set out to find the Shining Mountains and the Western Sea.

Their goal is now within sight—La Vérendrye's sons reach the Indians' "Shining Mountains", which may have been the majestic Rockies themselves.

The adventurers went to the Mandan villages on the Missouri, and from there they made their way westward until on New Year's Day, 1743, they came in sight of what the Indians called the Shining Mountains. Whether these were the Rocky Mountains or some hills east of the Rockies, scholars are not yet agreed. Many historians who have studied their journals maintain that François and Louis reached the foothills of the Rockies. If so, they were the first white men in the northern part of North America to behold them.

They did not, it is true, reach the Western Sea. Hostile Indians barred their way. François wrote in his journal, "I was exceedingly disappointed not to be able to ascend the mountains as I had intended." He also wrote in his journal that on their return journey they built a cairn and placed in it a leaden plate claiming the lands for the King of France. It was that leaden plate which little Hattie Foster found a hundred and seventy years later.

In July François and Louis returned to Fort La Reine to tell the story of their travels.

THE LA VERENDRYES HAVE TO GIVE UP THEIR EXPLORATIONS

La Vérendrye's troubles were not over. The fur trade had not paid the costs of his expeditions. The southern country in which he had built his posts was not as rich in furs as the northern plains. He begged for more help from the governor, from the King, from the merchants of Montreal. No help came.

Later, in 1749, the King gave a decoration, the Cross of St. Louis, to La Vérendrye, in recognition of the great work he had done, and authorized another expedition. With high hopes La Vérendrye prepared to set out again the following spring. But death came to the gallant explorer before the ice was gone from the rivers.

La Vérendrye and his sons received no fitting reward for their work in their lifetime, but they are honoured by Canadians as the men who opened up the overland route to the fur trade of the west. Thanks to their explorations the French found a way to the rich fur trade of the plains.

It was not long after the death of La Vérendrye that New France passed into the hands of the British. The North West Company trading from Montreal followed the routes opened by the courageous French family of explorers. To-day on the bank of the Red River, in the city of St. Boniface, there stands a noble monument to the memory of Pierre de la Vérendrye and his sons.

Girls and boys of Winnipeg often visit the La Vérendrye monument in St. Boniface.

For Further Study

1. Why was the beaver chosen as the emblem of Canada?

2. Louisiana was La Salle's memorial. It belonged to France for many years. Now it is part of the United States. When did France give up this territory?

3. Make a mural depicting the adventures of La Salle.

4. Have you ever seen the coat of arms of the Hudson's Bay Company? What does the motto "Pro pelle cutem" mean?

5. In the early days the trade of the Hudson's Bay Company was estimated in terms of beaver pelts. In exchange for one beaver pelt an Indian could get eight knives, or two hatchets, or twelve needles, or half a pound of thread, or one shirt, or twenty fishhooks, or four spoons, or a brass kettle. For a blanket he paid six beavers; for a rifle, eight. Prepare a display card to show the Indians what the white man's goods would cost them. (For more prices see *The Honourable Company* by Douglas MacKay, pp. 85-86.)

6. Make a list of the animals whose pelts the Hudson's Bay Company bought from the Indians.

7. To-day quantities of grain are shipped from western Canada to Europe from Churchill by way of Hudson Bay. Why are the insurance rates high on these cargoes?

8. Look at the map of La Vérendrye's forts. Draw a map of the same area and put in the names of the cities and towns which have grown up on the sites of La Vérendrye's forts.

9. Prepare a speech such as La Vérendrye might have made to the merchants of Montreal when he was trying to persuade them to supply more money for his expeditions. He would tell them what he had done and what he hoped to do.

10. Add the *Griffin* and the *Nonsuch* to your Book of Ships.

11. A 1958 5-cent stamp honours La Vérendrye. Add one to your collection.

V. *The Fight for North America*

23. The French and British Struggle for Control of the New Land

"New France, New Spain, New England,
Which will it be?
Who will win the new land?
The land across the sea?"
ROSEMARY AND STEPHEN BENÉT: *French Pioneers*

This was a time when all the powerful nations, Spain, England, France, Portugal and the Netherlands, were building up their wealth through trade and colonies. Each one wanted to gain control of as much of the New World as it could. Navies were organized and the merchant marine and the fishing fleets were encouraged in every possible way. For example, when England became Protestant the people were required by law to continue to eat no meat on Fridays in order that a stronger fishing fleet could be built up. The men who learned seamanship in the merchant marine and in the fishing fleets were expected to fight at sea whenever their country was at war. In order to have goods for trade, manufacturing was encouraged, as was agriculture, so that each nation would be able to supply most of its own food. Heavy customs duties were imposed on foreign goods.

Colonies were valued for their supplies of raw material, such as fish, fur, lumber, tobacco, cotton, grain and sugar. The Spaniards were considered especially fortunate because they obtained from their possessions so much gold and silver. Every nation expected its colonies to trade only with the Mother Country and the colonies were forbidden to manufacture for themselves anything they could buy from the Mother Country. Thus colonies supplied both a source of raw material and a market for manufactured goods.

This mercantilist system, as it was called, was the chief reason for the many wars between the great nations during the sixteenth, seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. It was also, as we shall see later, one of the chief causes of dispute between the English colonies in America and the Mother Country, as the colonists wanted to manufacture whatever they could for themselves and resented bitterly having their trade regulated by Britain.

Since North America is a very large continent, we might think that there was room in it for the handful of French settlers living on the banks of the St. Lawrence and for the few thousand British settlers along the Atlantic coast. But not so. Over and over again they made war on each other, Whenever there was war between Britain and France in Europe, there was war between the British and French in America. Moreover, the colonies did not always wait for the Mother Countries to declare war upon each other. Sometimes the fighting began in America before it began in Europe.

RIVALRY FOR THE FUR TRADE

Fur trade led to the settlement of the colonies. The first explorers took furs home to Europe and sold them at good prices. This led companies to establish settlements in the hope of making profits from a regular fur trade. Beaver commanded good prices, for every European gentleman had to have a hat made of beaver felt. It did not matter whether the furs were new or had been worn for a long

A beaver skin becomes a gentleman's fine felt hat.

time by the Indians. They were still valuable because it was the short hairs next to the pelt that were used for making felt.

It was the search for furs that brought about the exploration of the interior. Radisson and Groseilliers, Louis Jolliet, Daniel Du Lhut and many others paddled up the rivers and lakes, blazing the way for others to follow. Champlain, La Salle, La Vérendrye were explorers at heart, eager to find the western sea and the passage to Asia but they, too, were traders. They counted on the furs to finance their expeditions.

As soon as a nation realized there was wealth to be made from beaver skins, it did not want to share that wealth with anyone else. The French and the English struggled for control of the fur trade, each hoping to drive the other from the continent. They fought for possession of Acadia and Newfoundland, and for Hudson Bay and the Ohio Valley, areas particularly rich in furs.

When the settlers first came, they could trade with the Indians nearby. The demand for fur was so great, however, that very soon there were no more wild animals near the settlements. Traders of both nations tried to persuade the Indians to bring their furs to the settlement, but, if the Indians did not come, then the traders had to find other ways of getting the furs. For a time the Huron Indians acted as middlemen for the French. They brought furs, traded them for axes, kettles, beads, blankets, and guns, which they took up the Great Lakes to the Crees and traded for furs, and then took the furs down to the French settlements. This worked very well until the Huron villages were destroyed by the Iroquois and the Hurons forced to scatter.

For a time after the Iroquois defeated the Hurons, few furs were brought to the French settlement. The Hurons had fled for their lives; the Iroquois were unfriendly to the French and took their furs to the Dutch or to the English. If the French wanted furs, they had to go after them. Coureurs de bois went farther and farther from the colony, sometimes living with the Indians for months and then returning with canoes loaded with furs. Radisson and Groseilliers, Daniel Du Lhut, Louis Jolliet traded on the shores of Lake Superior and beyond it; Jolliet and La Salle went as far as the Illinois, the Ohio, and the Mississippi.

The French traders established many trading-posts. The three most important were Fort Frontenac, Michilimackinac, and Fort Duquesne. Fort Frontenac, near the present site of Kingston, was built to control the trade on Lake Ontario; Michilimackinac, on the strait joining Lake Michigan and Lake Huron, was the most important post in the western fur trade; Fort Duquesne, on the Ohio where Pittsburgh now stands, was expected to control the trade in the Ohio Valley and keep the English out of this rich fur country.

The French had one great advantage in this struggle for the fur trade—the St. Lawrence-Great Lakes waterway which penetrated deep into the heart of the continent. From Montreal the fur brigade set forth in birch bark canoes. They could make their way to the country north and west of Lake Superior, to the Lake Michigan area, and by portages they could reach the valleys of the Ohio, the Illinois, and the Mississippi. Their coureurs de bois became friendly with the Indians and understood Indian ways; they could handle their canoes skilfully, find their way through the forest, and fight unfriendly Indians if necessary.

The greatest advantage the English had was that they could pay more for the beaver skins. English axes, knives, kettles, beads, and cloth cost less than the French ones because England was more advanced in manufacturing than France and could produce and ship these goods more cheaply. English rum, made in the colonies from sugar brought from the West Indies, was cheaper than French brandy and made the Indians just as happy.

With their Indian allies, the French and British tried to destroy each other's settlements. Lake Champlain and the Richelieu River made a natural war-path by which they travelled to raid the villages of their foes.

British ships came by sea to storm the French strongholds in Acadia and on the St. Lawrence. French ships carried attacking parties to Newfoundland and to the trading-posts on Hudson Bay. Even when France and England were not at war, French pirates seized English ships and raided settlements on the coast, then fled for shelter to harbours in New France, and English pirates from New York and Boston raided the French.

The white men wanted the furs. The Indians were eager to obtain the guns and ammunition, the beads and mirrors the white men offered them.

Champlain's choice of Quebec was a wise one. His experience as a soldier made him careful to select a site which could be easily defended from enemy attack. Since the river narrows at this point, no ship could approach without being seen from the fort if careful watch was kept. Although the settlement was on a slope near the water's edge, the fort was on a high rocky cliff. It was a splendid situation for a fort. A small garrison could defend it against a large attacking force as long as the defenders had enough food and ammunition.

The first capture of Quebec was in 1629 when Champlain's starving garrison was forced to surrender to David Kirke. Although the English made several attempts to take it, Quebec did not surrender again until one hundred and thirty years later when Wolfe landed his forces above the fortress and met the French troops on the Plains of Abraham.

THE FIGHTING GOVERNOR

In 1672, two years after the founding of the Hudson's Bay Company began to threaten French supremacy in the west, Count Frontenac came to New France as governor. He was a man of noble birth, who had been a soldier in the French army and a courtier at the court of Louis XIV. Although officials sent out to the colony were not supposed to make money for themselves out of the fur trade, many of them did. Frontenac had squandered his money and hoped to build up a new fortune in New France.

The new governor's chief concern was the development of the fur trade and opening up of the western country. English traders had encouraged the Iroquois to buy furs from the western tribes for the English. The Iroquois realized that, if they could control the waterways by which the furs were taken down to Montreal, they could obtain furs which they could take to Albany by way of the Mohawk and Hudson rivers. One of Frontenac's tasks was to break up this alliance of the Iroquois and the English, and, if possible, to persuade the Iroquois to trade with the French.

Frontenac was lucky; he came to Canada at the right time. The Iroquois were so busy fighting another Indian tribe that they did not want to have any trouble with the French. The English fur-traders were having difficulty getting trade goods because England was at war with the Netherlands.

FRONTENAC MEETS THE IROQUOIS AT CATARAQUI

La Salle was sent to invite the Iroquois tribes to a meeting at Cataraqui, where Kingston now stands. Frontenac took with him all the soldiers who could be spared from the colony. He organized an impressive fleet of one hundred and twenty canoes and two barges. First in the procession came canoes, arranged in squadrons, then the two barges, brilliantly painted and armed with small cannons. Next came canoes carrying Frontenac surrounded by regular soldiers in bright uniforms, then canoes carrying the Canadian militia and Indian allies. Never before had such a display been seen on the Great Lakes.

Frontenac showed a surprising understanding of the Indians. He did not hurry his negotiations. He gave the Indians a chance to see how quickly his men could build a fort. Each day some of the chiefs dined with him. He listened courteously to their speeches, gave presents to the chiefs and their squaws, and played with the children.

He told the Iroquois that he wanted peace and invited them bring their furs to the fort, but he showed them that if they chose war he would be ready to fight. The Iroquois were impressed by his confident, kindly manner, by the size of his forces, and by the speed with which his men built the fort. For a few years the French and their Indian allies were not troubled by the Iroquois.

THE MASSACRE OF LACHINE

Even before Frontenac was recalled to France in 1682 because of the charges that he had been making a profit out of the fur trade, there were signs that the Iroquois were likely to cause trouble again. They attacked the Illinois tribes on whom the French depended for a considerable part of their fur trade. After Frontenac left New France, the situation became worse. The Iroquois continued to attack the Indian allies of the French and to cut off the trade of the colony with the western tribes.

The Iroquois massacre the settlers at Lachine, thus beginning the war between the French and the New Englanders.

Although Denonville, the new governor, knew he did not have strong enough forces to risk war with the Iroquois, he knew he must do something to show them the power of the French. He took an expedition into the Iroquois country and destroyed some of their villages as a warning to them. Naturally the Iroquois determined to seek revenge. One stormy night in 1689, with terrifying war-whoops, fifteen hundred Iroquois swooped down upon the little village of Lachine, burned the buildings, massacred some of the settlers, and took the rest captive. Three months later they attacked La Chesnaye, twenty miles below Montreal, in the same way.

THE ATTACKS UPON THE ENGLISH VILLAGES

Frontenac, now seventy years old, was sent back to Canada. While he was away, the fear of attacks by the Iroquois had made people afraid to stay in Canada. After he came back, the population began to grow again. Since France and England were at war in Europe, Frontenac decided to strike a blow against the English in America. He hoped to show the Iroquois that the French were more powerful than the English, so that the Iroquois would bring their furs to the French and would hesitate to attack French villages.

Because the French were few in numbers, their only hope of success lay in surprise attacks. Three war-parties, one from Montreal, one from Three Rivers, one from Quebec, set out. Without warning these Frenchmen and their Indian allies swooped down upon the quiet villages of Schenectady, Salmon Falls, and Fort Loyal. Suddenly the air was filled with the blood-curdling war-whoops of the Indians. Men, women, and children were massacred and scalped by the Indians, or dragged away captives.

It was only to be expected that the English would retaliate. They met in conference in Albany and determined to attack New France by land and by sea. The land attack was a dismal failure, but the naval attack was more successful. Led by Sir William Phips, a force of New Englanders took Port Royal, the French stronghold in Acadia, and destroyed the Acadian settlements. They burned the buildings and forced the settlers to flee into the forests.

At Quebec Sir William Phips was less successful. It had taken him over two months to sail from Boston to Quebec. When at last the fleet lay before Quebec, Sir William sent a messenger demanding that Frontenac surrender.

The haughty French governor replied, "I will answer your general only by the mouths of my cannons that he may learn that a man such as I am is not to be summoned in this fashion. Let him do his best, and I will do mine."

The New Englanders soon found that they could not capture Quebec. While the inhabitants stood laughing and jeering on the ramparts, Sir William Phips and his thirty-four ships sailed away.

THE YOUNG HEROINE OF CASTLE DANGEROUS

The settlers lived in constant fear of attacks by the Iroquois. One bright October morning in 1692, Madeleine de Verchères, the fourteen-year-old daughter of the Seignior de Verchères, was standing on the river bank, watching for some visitors who were expected to come that day. Nearby was a servant who was mending a boat. Suddenly a shot rang out from the woods. Madeleine and the man looked round to see forty or fifty Iroquois moving towards them. Terrified, they ran to the fort through a hail of bullets from the savages.

This was not the first time Madeleine had known an attack by the Indians. Four years earlier, the little girl had been in the fort while her mother directed the defence of her home against attacking Indians. Their seigniory lay right in the path the Iroquois followed from Montreal to Three Rivers and for that reason it had been given the name "Castle Dangerous". This time, both the seignior and Madame de Verchères were away. In the fort were Madeleine's two younger brothers, aged ten and twelve, two soldiers, one old man of eighty and a few women and children.

The soldiers were so certain that the situation was hopeless that they were preparing to blow up the blockhouse rather than fall into the hands of the Iroquois. Madeleine scolded them for their cowardice and proceeded to organize the defence of the fort. She knew that the Indians did not know how few there were to fight them. She passed out guns and ammunition to her brothers and to some of the women. She ordered the cannon fired to warn the workers in the fields to flee for safety. All night long, whenever the Iroquois came near the fort, shots rang out. All night long, the few defenders shouted to each other "All's

Fourteen-year-old Madeleine defends her home with a wisdom and courage far beyond her years.

well!" For eight days the courageous young girl kept her small force active. The only sleep any of them had were a few minutes at a time as they sat at the portholes with their guns in their hands. At last she heard one of her little garrison cry, "Who goes there?" When the answer came "French soldiers to help you", she rushed to the barricade to welcome them.

To the officer in charge, Madeleine said, "Sir, I surrender my arms to you."

"Mademoiselle, they are in good hands," replied the officer with a bow and a smile.

When the King of France heard about Madeleine's heroic defence of her home, he granted her a pension for life.

ATTACKS ON THE BRITISH IN NEWFOUNDLAND AND HUDSON BAY

Frontenac decided to carry war to the enemy's territory. He commissioned Le Moyne d'Iberville to raid the English fishing villages in Newfoundland. A few years before this time, King Charles II of England had given the French permission to fish along a certain part of the coast of Newfoundland. A French governor and soldiers came to Placentia Bay to protect their fishermen, and the French began to make raids on the English villages. The English had neither forts nor soldiers, but when d'Iberville was advancing towards the English headquarters at St. John's, a courageous band of fishermen tried to stop him. D'Iberville's forces outnumbered the fishermen almost five to one and forced them to give way. The English fled for shelter to the woods and small coves and, after the French had gone on their way, the survivors returned and rebuilt their homes.

Meanwhile there was a lively struggle for control of the profitable fur trade on Hudson Bay. The trading-posts which the British had established were raided again and again by the French.

In this war the French were successful in Europe, and, by the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697, Port Royal was given back to the French, and all the forts on Hudson Bay but Fort Albany were left in the hands of the French traders.

WAR AGAIN

This peace did not last long. Five years later Britain and France were at war again in Europe and the colonists were sending raids against each other. Port Royal had been returned to the French and had become once more headquarters for privateers who sailed out to attack British ships. The New Englanders, angry that Port Royal had been given back to France after Sir William Phips had captured it, begged Queen Anne to send them help to take it once and for all. The Queen promised ships and soldiers and in 1710 Colonel Nicholson led the British in another attack on the French at Port Royal. After brief resistance the French governor surrendered when the English began to shell the town. The British renamed the place Annapolis after Queen Anne, and, from that day to this, Acadia, now called Nova Scotia, has remained in British hands.

Not content with taking Port Royal and Acadia, Nicholson and his men started up the St. Lawrence with the intention of seizing Quebec and putting French rule in America to an end. Their ships were wrecked in the St. Lawrence and Quebec remained safe.

When peace was made in 1713 by the Treaty of Utrecht, France gave up all claims to Hudson Bay and Newfoundland, as well as to Acadia. French fishermen were allowed to land on the shores of Newfoundland to dry their fish and spread out their nets. France also kept Cape Breton Island.

ACADIA

Acadia had a stormy history. Not long after de Monts and Champlain left Port Royal, French fur-traders came out and built trading-posts. Britain also claimed Acadia, and, in 1621, James I granted it to a Scottish courtier, Sir William Alexander, who gave it the name Nova Scotia. When Quebec was given back to France in 1632, the British also gave up their claim to Acadia, and in the next few years at least sixty families came out from France. They were mostly farmers and fishermen from the marshy lands of western France, and in Acadia along the shores of the Basin of Minas they found the kind of land they had been used to in France.

Again in 1654 the British took Acadia and it remained in British hands for thirteen years. Once more, in 1690, as we have seen, Port Royal and Acadia were taken by Sir William Phips and the settlers forced to flee to the woods, but again the treaty gave Acadia back to France. The settlers had barely had time to rebuild their homes and repair their dikes before war broke out again and their homes were destroyed once more, the dikes broken, the fields flooded with salt water, their homes and barns burned, their live-stock taken or destroyed. Then, by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, Acadia was again handed over to the British.

In spite of all this war, the population of Acadia increased. By 1713, the descendants of the original sixty families numbered about two thousand. France offered the Acadians new homes in Prince Edward Island or in Cape

The peaceful Acadians want only to be left free to enjoy a quiet life on their farms.

Breton, but few of them took up the offer. They loved their homes. It was a land of plenty for these simple hard-working families. There was good pasture in the marsh hay that grew behind the dikes, and in their fields they grew good crops of wheat, oats, and flax, while their orchards provided apples, pears, plums, and cherries. The Acadians were devout Roman Catholics and the priests were held in high respect. People married young and had large families who helped with the farm work until they, too, married and moved out beyond the settled areas to make new homes for themselves.

British settlers did not come to take up land and the British made no move to drive the Acadians out. Since Acadia had been taken by the British before and handed back to France, the Acadians hoped that this would happen again. Meanwhile they went quietly on farming and fishing, worshipping in their little churches, enjoying life as they had done before.

Port Royal, the French stronghold in Acadia, had been a serious threat to the New Englanders until it was surrendered to the British along with all Acadia in 1713. The British rejoiced that they no longer needed to fear the power of the enemy in that area. However, the French were not giving up the struggle in America. Although they had lost Port Royal and Acadia they decided to make the most of Cape Breton Island. On a magnificent harbour in Cape Breton they built one of the most famous fortresses in America, Louisbourg, so named in honour of the King of France. The fortifications, planned by one of France's greatest engineers, cost so much that King Louis asked if the streets were paved with gold. Just as Quebec controlled the Upper St. Lawrence, Louisbourg controlled the entrance to the St. Lawrence. To take New France, Britain would have to take these two strong fortresses.

When war broke out again in 1744, Louisbourg became the headquarters of French pirates who attacked the New England fishing-boats and trading-ships. In one summer twenty-five ships from Boston were captured by these pirates. It was not long before the New Englanders realized that Louisbourg was a greater danger to them than Port Royal had ever been.

A party from New England undertook to attack this great stronghold. Clerks, farmers, and fishermen, led by a merchant, set forth on the expedition. These men had little military training or experience. Their plans had not been made carefully; their equipment was poor. They made foolish mistakes. For example, they took a supply of cannon-balls but no cannon from which to fire them.

However, they had great good luck. First, they had good weather and reached Louisbourg without difficulty or delay. Then they found that the French made mistakes,

New Englanders set out with high hopes, but little preparation, to attack Louisbourg.

too. When the French were driven back, they abandoned some of their cannons in such a hurry that they did not take time to smash them. Soon British cannon-balls, fired from French guns, began to fall upon the French fortress.

The British had still more good luck. Their own supplies of food and ammunition were running low when they sighted a French ship approaching the harbour. They succeeded in capturing it, and found it filled with the supplies of food and ammunition they needed to continue the attack.

In June, 1745, the great fortress surrendered to the men of New England.

But the capture of Louisbourg was only one battle in the great war between the French and the British which was being fought not only in America but also in Europe and in Asia. When the peace was made, Louisbourg was given back to France. You can imagine how furious the New England colonists were when they learned that the great fortress they had succeeded in taking had been returned.

24. The Final Conflict

"Montcalm and Wolfe! Wolfe and Montcalm!
Quebec, thy storied citadel
Attests in burning song and psalm
How here thy heroes fell!"
CHARLES G. D. ROBERTS: *Canada*

THE SEVEN YEARS WAR

The rivalry between France and Britain was now so great that it was clear there was not room in North America for two such ambitious nations. The French dreamed of a great empire in North America. They wanted to link their colony on the St. Lawrence with their possessions at the mouth of the Mississippi. If they had succeeded, they would have restricted the British to a narrow strip along the Atlantic. The British were determined not to allow this. They wanted the western country, too.

The Seven Years War (1756-63) was part of another great war between France and Britain. Once again the two nations were fighting in Europe and Asia and on the high seas as well as in America. The war broke out in America in the Ohio Valley in 1754, two years before it began in Europe, and it ended in America in 1760 with the surrender of Montreal. This war resulted in victory for the British, but during the fighting it would have been hard to predict which nation would win.

When the war began, there were about 60,000 people living in New France, and the population of the British colonies is believed to have been well over 1,500,000. Though there were many more British than there were French, nevertheless, in the early stages of the war, the British colonial forces were not as effective as the French. Because each colony had its own governor and Assembly, made its own laws, decided what taxes it should collect and how the money should be spent, it took them some time to organize successfully for war. There were fewer French but they were united and well-organized under one government. The French had on their side many coureurs de bois who were experienced in forest fighting. Moreover, they could count on more support from their Indian allies than the British could.

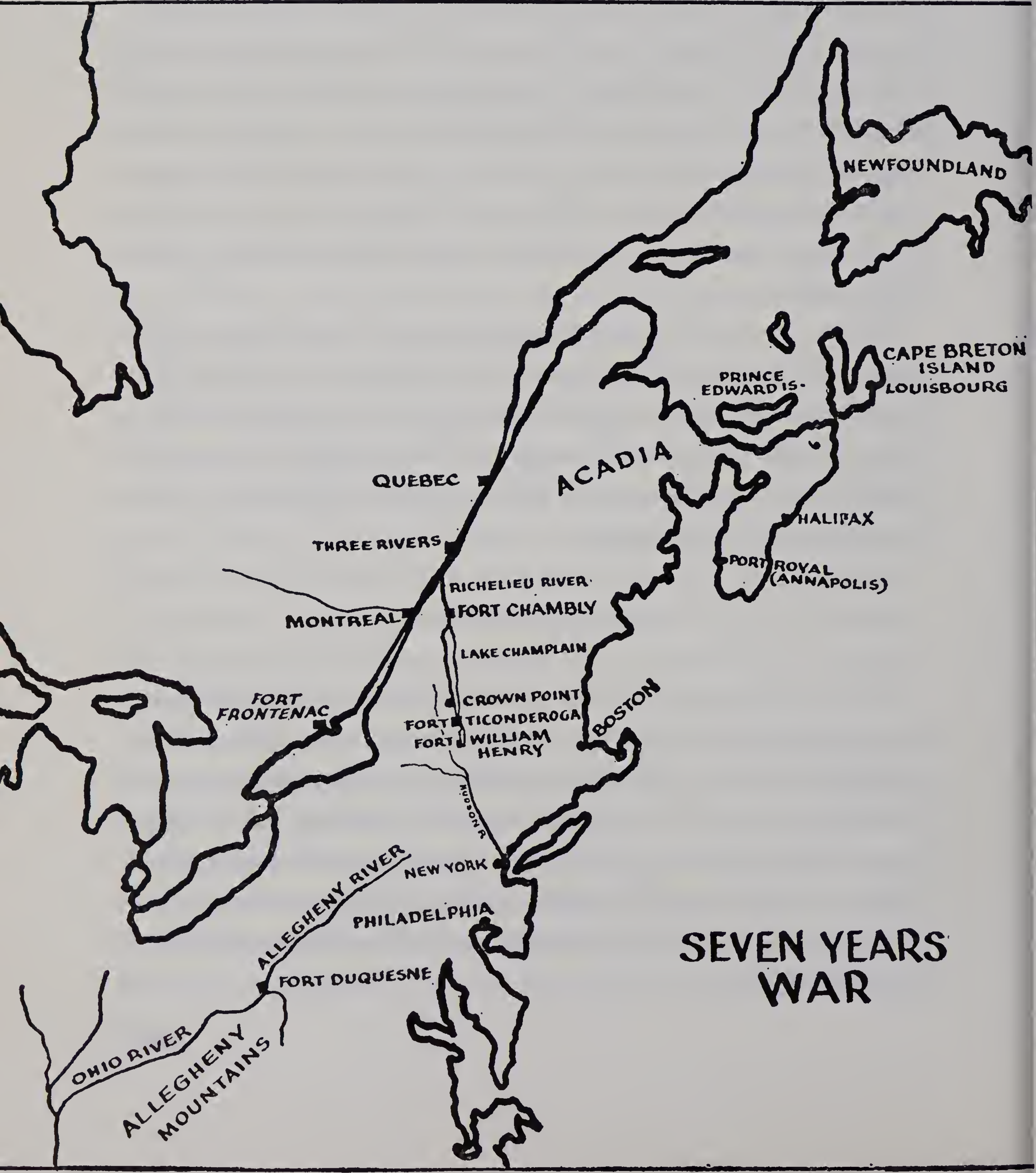
The French posts were scattered over such a very wide territory that it was difficult to get soldiers and supplies to them in time of war. The British had less difficulty in maintaining their supply lines because their settlements were less scattered. The British had seaports which were open all year round, where reinforcements and supplies from England could be landed. The French seaports were open only about six months in the year. When there was ice in the St. Lawrence, no help could come from France to the little colony.

Before we read further about this war, let us look at the map. There were four areas in America in which the French and British fought. They fought in the Ohio Valley. They fought on Lake Champlain. They fought in Acadia. Finally the British carried the war into the heart of the French colony at Quebec.

THE OHIO VALLEY

As the settlements spread inland from the Atlantic Ocean, the British moved farther and farther west. When they moved west of the Allegheny Mountains, they came in conflict with French fur-traders and their Indian allies. The French fur-traders were determined to control the Ohio Valley. They were building a line of forts to link their settlements on the St. Lawrence with those at the mouth of the Mississippi.

The British did not like these French posts cutting them off from the western fur trade. They began to build a fort at the forks of the Ohio where Pittsburgh now stands. The French seized the fort and finished building it, naming it Fort Duquesne. The Virginians sent George Washington, then a young man of twenty-one, to protest to the French at Fort Duquesne. Washington informed the French fur-traders that they were in territory "known to be the property of the Crown in Great Britain". The commander refused to give up his fort.



"My countryman, Robert La Salle, discovered this land nearly a hundred years ago," he declared. "It belongs to France. The whole valley of the Ohio belongs to France. We will keep this fort and we will build others. We will hold the Ohio for our people. And we warn the English to keep out. Tell that to your governor."

In 1755, a force made up of volunteers from the colonies and British regular troops marched against Fort Duquesne.

General Braddock was in command. He was an experienced soldier, but his experience had been gained in Europe where methods of warfare were different from those of the Indians. European armies dressed in bright colours and marched out to meet each other with drums beating and flags waving. Indian fighting was very different; it was like modern guerrilla fighting. The Indians took advantage of every bit of cover they could find. They dressed so that it was hard for the enemy to see them against the ground or among trees.

George Washington, who was with Braddock, tried to warn him about Indian warfare. But Braddock was a veteran of many European battles and thought he knew more about fighting than any young colonist. As Braddock and his men came near the fort, the woods suddenly became alive with foes. Indians hidden behind trees shot at the red-coated soldiers. Bravely the redcoats marched forward against an enemy they could not see. Gaps formed in the ranks as the Indian bullets found their marks, and soldiers moved up to fill the places of their fallen comrades. Five horses were shot from under Braddock before he was killed. The few survivors had to retreat.

The British soldiers were very courageous. They lost this battle because they did not understand their enemy's kind of fighting. To-day it seems very strange to us that a general should neglect to send scouts in advance of his army. It seems strange that an army should beat drums which warn the enemy it is approaching, and that soldiers should wear bright colours which make them easy targets.

Braddock had been defeated, and the French kept control of the Ohio Valley for a few years more.

LAKE CHAMPLAIN—RICHELIEU RIVER DISTRICT

Lake Champlain and the Richelieu River provided a natural war-path between the French and the British settlements. It became the second battle area of the Seven Years War. Both sides began to build forts along this route in order to protect their settlements from attack.

The French built a fort at Chambly. The British settlers resented this, but they were unable to agree among themselves about building a fort to stop the French. While the British colonies were arguing about where to place their fort and who should pay for it, the French came farther up Lake Champlain and built Crown Point.

Now the British, realizing how strong the French were becoming, sent an army into this territory. They tried to take Crown Point but they failed. The best they could do was to build Fort William Henry to stop the French from coming closer to their settlements.

ACADIA

The third battle area was in Acadia, as Nova Scotia was then called. Both the British and the French began to prepare for the struggle there. In 1749 the British, realizing the need for a strong fort to oppose the French stronghold at Louisbourg, built a fort at Halifax, where there is an excellent harbour.

Few British settlers came to Acadia until after Halifax was built. French priests who travelled back and forth from Acadia to New France encouraged the Acadian farmers to believe that France would once more rule over them. When Governor Lawrence demanded that the settlers take an oath of allegiance to Britain, they did not obey his command. They were afraid that they might have to fight against their fellow-countrymen. They delayed, hoping and believing that their country would soon be under French control again.

Since war between France and Britain appeared to be inevitable, the governor had no choice. Either these Acadians must be loyal to Britain or they must be moved away. It was too dangerous to keep them where they could help the French when war came. The governor wrote, "Nothing now remains to be considered but what means should be taken to send them away and where they should be sent to."

The French settlers were summoned to the settlements and told that they must leave the country. Over six thousand of them were herded into ships by the British soldiers. They were allowed to take with them only what they could carry. The soldiers who were taking them to the ships did not speak or understand French. They did not always see that families were kept together. Sometimes children were separated from their parents, wives from their husbands.

The unhappy Acadians were not taken to the French settlements at Quebec or Cape Breton, for that would have strengthened those colonies. They were landed in small groups in different ports along the coast of British colonies south of Boston.

Years later, after great hardships, a few of the Acadians found their way back to their old homes. Some of them

Imagine the grief and sorrow of these unfortunate Acadians as they were forced to board the ships that would carry them away from their beloved homes.

joined the French settlements at the mouth of the Mississippi. Others made homes wherever they could in the British colonies.

To-day, we would call the Acadians "displaced persons". Their unhappy fate is one of the cruel tragedies of North American history.

THE TIDE TURNS IN FAVOUR OF THE BRITISH

The French were successful in the early years of the war. Their general, Montcalm, was an experienced and skilful soldier. He surprised and captured Fort Oswego, opposite Fort Frontenac. He went up the Richelieu to the French fort at Ticonderoga, and from it, captured Fort William Henry. With a comparatively small force he defeated General Abercrombie in his attack on Ticonderoga.

In 1758, however, the tide began to turn in favour of the British. William Pitt had come into power in Britain. He was determined to drive the French out of Canada and end the long struggle for control of North America. Incompetent generals were dismissed and better men appointed. Pitt succeeded in making the people of both Britain and the colonies realize how important it was to win this war. The first big British victory was the capture of Fort Frontenac, where the British seized the supplies which were to be sent to Fort Duquesne. Lacking supplies, the French had to give up Fort Duquesne, which the British then named Pittsburgh in honour of the great war minister.

THE CAPTURE OF LOUISBOURG

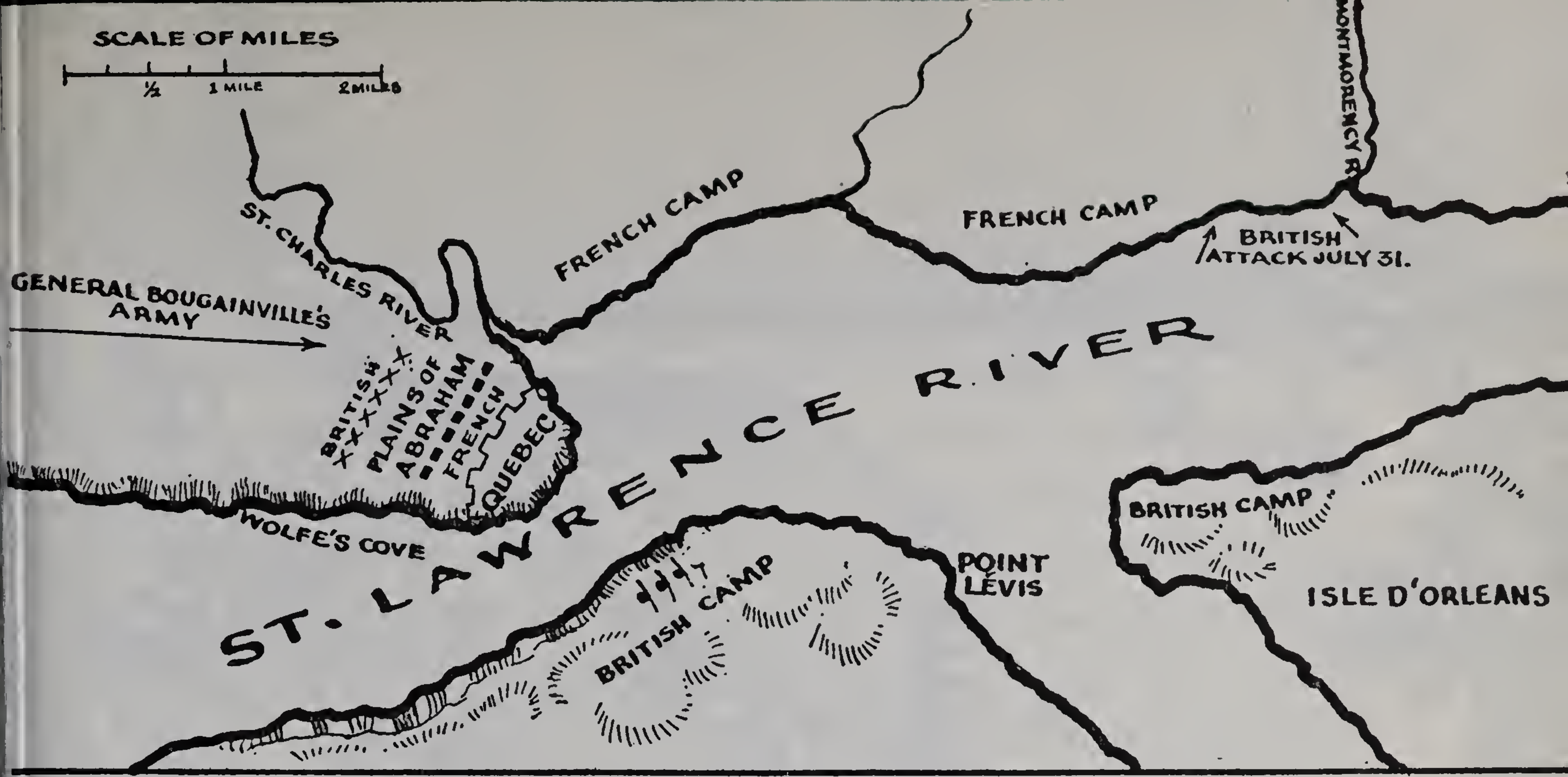
Meanwhile a British fleet was sailing to attack Louisbourg. This time the British were well equipped for the attack. They took the great fortress and with it gained Cape Breton Island and Prince Edward Island. Now that the guardian of the St. Lawrence had fallen, the way was open for an attack on Quebec.

THE CAPTURE OF QUEBEC

One of the heroes of the attack upon Louisbourg was General James Wolfe. The British Government, recognizing his courage and ability, chose him to lead the attack on Quebec though he was only thirty-two years old. Wolfe set sail from England with 8,500 of the best-trained men in the British Army, excellent officers, and, what was very important, a first-class fleet. Vice-Admiral Saunders was in charge of 49 well-armed ships of the Royal Navy plus about 150 transport and supply boats. Together they made up a magnificent force.

Wolfe sailed up the St. Lawrence River and in June, 1759, took up a position at Lévis, across the river from Quebec. The French were prepared for an attack. One army, under the Marquis de Montcalm, was stationed below Quebec between the St. Charles and the Montmorency rivers; another, under General Bougainville, was stationed about eight miles above. The siege of Quebec began.

Wolfe found the problem of capturing Quebec far from simple. Montcalm, fifteen years older than Wolfe, had been an active soldier from the age of fifteen. He was a brave and capable officer, with a deep sense of responsibility toward his task in Canada. When the instructions of the French King reached him—"You must hold out to the very last, whatever happens"—Montcalm replied, "I shall do everything to maintain a foothold in New France, or die in its defence." Montcalm concentrated most of his available forces in and near Quebec, and these outnumbered Wolfe's troops by two to one. Many of Montcalm's soldiers were amateur militia-men (recruited from the citizenry), whereas Wolfe's men were the flower of the British Army, but Montcalm was able to hold the north shore of the St. Lawrence with such strength that Wolfe almost despaired. He landed below the Montmorency River but an attack above the falls failed. Then he tried landing on the shore in front of Montcalm's army, but again he was unsuccessful. From their position at Lévis, the British fired cannon across the river and reduced much of Quebec to ruins, but this did not bring Wolfe much nearer to victory. To make matters worse, Wolfe's health, never good, broke down, and day after day he was not able to rise from his bed. June, July and August passed, and Wolfe had not taken Quebec. He was expecting reinforcements but he watched for them in vain. Winter was coming on and he knew that before September was over the British fleet would have to depart, for his forces could not spend the winter there unless they



took Quebec and were able to get supplies.

Then it was that Wolfe risked a bold stroke that changed the course of Canadian history. The surgeons had "patched him up", as he expressed it; and he made in person a last examination of the north shore. He discovered, a mile or two above Quebec, a cove (which since that day has been known as Wolfe's Cove) where a sharp path led to the plains above. With the object of drawing Montcalm's troops away, he made a pretence of preparing to attack in two other places. Until the last moment, not even Wolfe's brigadiers knew where the actual attack was to be made. Then, on the night of September 12th, the army put off quietly in the boats of the fleet, and drifted down the river in the darkness to the appointed place.

When the French guards on shore heard boats approaching they were not alarmed because they were expecting supply boats that night from up the river. A sentry challenged, but one of the British soldiers answered in French. The French did not fear an attack there, thinking the cliffs too difficult to scale. Thus, the heights (known to-day as the Plains of Abraham) were defended by only a small and inefficient French force. After the first of the British boats had grounded on the shore of the cove, the advance guard of Wolfe's army clambered up the steep cliff. Silently, they pulled themselves up by the trees and bushes. At the top

The British reached the Plains of Abraham by using a little-known path.

they met little resistance from the sleepy French guards and quickly cleared the barricade from the path. By morning nearly 4,500 well-trained British soldiers were drawn up ready for battle on the Plains of Abraham.

Communications were bad and it was hours before Montcalm and Vaudreuil, the Governor General of New France, were even aware of the landing. But when Montcalm realized what had happened, he wasted no time in idle regrets. He had two courses open to him. He could either wait behind the walls of Quebec until both sides had brought up all their forces or he could attempt to crush Wolfe before his position could be made firm. Like the brave man he was, Montcalm decided to attack at once, though this was not a wise choice as Bougainville's forces had not yet arrived to support him and most of his own men were not regular soldiers. At about ten o'clock Montcalm, at the head of his troops, advanced to the attack. As the French moved forward they fired irregularly, but Wolfe had given orders that his troops should hold their fire. Not until the French were within forty yards did the British send forth a general volley of shots. The effect was devastating. The French officers tried to rally their men but the soldiers broke and fled. By the time the inefficient Bougainville and his forces arrived at noon, it was too late. Wolfe had won a great victory. A few days later Quebec surrendered. But the war was not over yet: another year of fighting was required before the remaining French forces in North America laid down their arms in Montreal, and Canada passed under British rule.

Both Wolfe and Montcalm were fatally wounded in the battle on the Plains of Abraham. As his men swept forward, Wolfe was carried to the rear. One of those near him cried, "They run, see how they run!" Wolfe roused himself and demanded, "Who runs?" When told it was the French, the general gave a last order and then, turning on his side, added, "Now, God be praised, I will die in peace."

Montcalm, after receiving his wound, rode painfully back into Quebec on his black charger, supported by three soldiers. When the doctors told him he had only about twelve hours to live, he replied, "So much the better. I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec." When asked what orders he had for the army, the general answered, "I'll neither give orders nor interfere any further. I have much business that must be attended to; my time is very short—

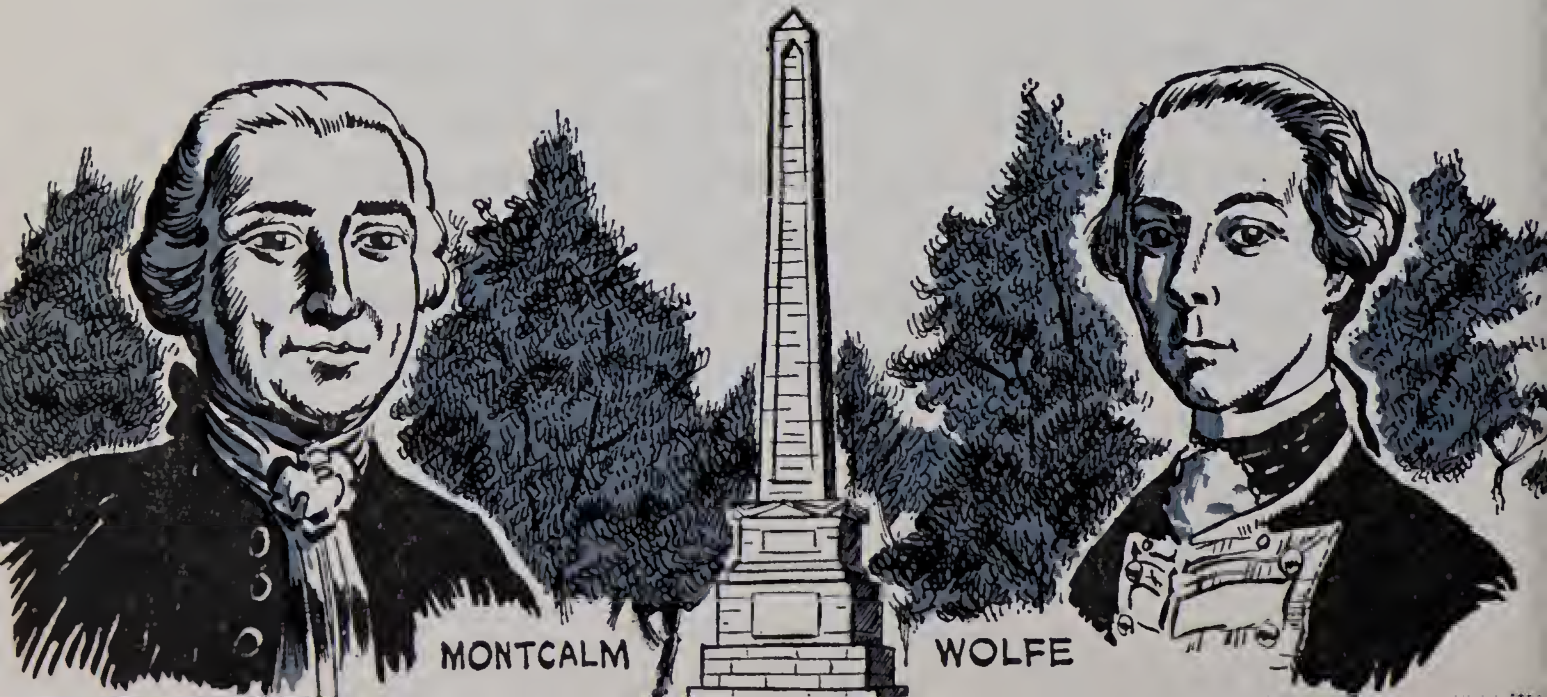
therefore pray leave me—I wish you all comfort and to be happily extricated from your present perplexities." Then he sent for his chaplain.

Just before Montcalm died he said, "Since it was my misfortune to be discomfited and mortally wounded, it is a great consolation to be vanquished by so brave and generous an enemy."

Wolfe and Montcalm were both good soldiers and gallant men. To-day on the Plains of Abraham outside the walls of Quebec stands a monument to honour them both. Wolfe's name is on one side, Montcalm's on the other. There is a Latin inscription which says: "Valour gave them a common death, history a common fame, and posterity a common memorial."

It may seem strange to some people that one monument should honour two generals who fought against each other. But both are Canadian heroes.

The core of Canada's population today is made up either of descendants of the early French settlers, or of people of British stock who came after the colony was handed over to Britain. These two groups differ in many ways. One group speaks French and almost all its members are Roman Catholics; the other speaks English and most of its members are Protestants. In their customs, in their language, the two groups are different. Yet they are united by a common devotion to Canada, to our form of government, and to our way of life. All are now Canadians.



25. The Beginning of a Partnership

"Regions Caesar never knew
Thy posterity shall sway."
William Cowper: *Boadicea*

Until 1763 the French had dreamed of a great French Empire in North America. This dream came to an end when the Treaty of Paris was signed. France surrendered Canada to Great Britain and Louisiana to Spain. Out of all France's former holdings in America only the small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon remained.

Now Britain became supreme in the eastern half of North America. Canada, Acadia, Cape Breton, Newfoundland were all under the British flag. The English colonies were well established along the Atlantic Coast, and by the Treaty of Paris Spain had surrendered Florida. A great trading company, the Hudson's Bay Company, controlled the north and the west. From the Arctic to Florida no nation disputed her claim.

THE BRITISH DID NOT REALIZE THE IMPORTANCE OF THEIR NEW COLONY

When France surrendered Canada to Britain in 1763 neither the French nor the British realized how important this country would become. Voltaire, a great French writer, spoke of Canada as "a few acres of snow". Some of the British representatives who drew up the treaty suggested that it would be better for Britain to take Guadeloupe, a small sugar-producing island in the West Indies, and let the French keep Canada.

The British wanted control of Canada, not because they thought it was a country where British settlers would want to live, but because they wanted to be free from danger of war with the French in America.

After the surrender, the French soldiers and government officials returned to France. Many of the wealthier seigniors and merchants went with them. Although half of Quebec lay in ruins as a result of the bombardment, and over fourteen hundred families were homeless because the British had burned dwellings for miles along the St. Lawrence, between sixty and seventy thousand French settlers remained in Canada.

There was little to encourage the habitants to return to France, for they knew they would have little hope of obtaining land there. They were Canadians. Most of them had been born here. Canada was their home and they did not want to leave it. They had cleared their own land; they could rebuild their homes. The clergy encouraged them to stay, and the parish priests, most of whom had come from Canadian families, were glad to remain in their parishes and continue to guide and care for their people. Some of the seigniors, too, decided to stay. No doubt many of the French believed that the day would come when France would win Canada back again.

During the time between the fall of Quebec in 1759 and the surrender of Canada to the British by the Treaty of Paris in 1763, the government of the country was in the hands of the generals of the British army. Naturally the people were unhappy about the defeat of the French, and they were worried about their own fate. Canada had been conquered. What could they expect from their conquerors? Some of their worst fears were set at rest when Governor Murray read his Proclamation.

"All Canadians," he proclaimed, "are at liberty to return to their parishes, to take possession of their lands, dwellings and effects belonging to them, to reap their harvests, to practise their religion without the least impediment on the

Governor Murray informs the anxious Canadians of their fate under the new British rulers.

part of the English, who have come, not to ruin and destroy the Canadians, but to enable them to enjoy the mildness of a just and equitable government."

At least the settlers were not going to be driven off their lands, and they could continue to worship in their own churches. The habitants were pleasantly surprised when the British paid cash for the provisions bought from them. For some months before the war ended, the French army had been giving them only worthless paper money.

A SMALL TRICKLE OF BRITISH SETTLERS

British officials came to govern the country and British soldiers came to keep order and to defend it if the need should arise. During the war several merchants had come with the army to look after supplies. After the surrender of Quebec the British generals knew that all kinds of supplies were needed. They sent a message to the governors of New York and Massachusetts inviting traders "to transport themselves hither with quantities of molasses, salt, wines, teas, sugars, and all kinds of groceries, as likewise sheep and everything that may occur to them as useful."

Several of these merchants decided to remain in Canada. They hoped to sell goods to the people of the settlements and they hoped, also, to take a share in the profitable fur trade of the north and west. Most of the British merchants established themselves in Montreal, which soon surpassed Quebec in population and is now Canada's largest business centre.

THE PROCLAMATION OF 1763

Governor Murray's Proclamation of 1763, in addition to promising the French freedom of religion and the right to their lands, had promised an elected Legislative Assembly. The French settlers had never had an elected assembly and did not really want one. The few British settlers were accustomed to having the right to elect an assembly and they took it for granted that there would be one in Canada. The British expected to have British laws; the French wanted to have their problems settled by the French laws to which they were accustomed. This created a very difficult problem. In Britain, at that time, Roman Catholics were not allowed to vote or hold office. The French settlers were Roman Catholics. Although British settlers from the colonies to the south had been invited to come to Canada, few of them came. Would an assembly mean that a few hundred British made laws for about 60,000 French Canadians?

Although General Murray had been told to have an assembly elected, he did not do so. The British merchants were dissatisfied and complained to the British Government. Murray was recalled, and Sir Guy Carleton took his place. But Carleton disappointed the merchants. He and Murray had been soldiers, accustomed to taking responsibility and to giving commands. They did not look with favour on elected assemblies which argued about laws.

Carleton thought that the severe climate and the lack of resources would discourage Englishmen from coming to the colony. "Barring catastrophe shocking to think of," he wrote, "this country must, to the end of time, be peopled by the Canadian race, who already have taken such firm root, and got to so great a height that any new stock transplanted will be totally hid, and imperceptible amongst them except in the towns of Quebec and Montreal." Most Canadians do not agree with Carleton about the climate and resources of Canada. Ours is a healthy climate and we know that our country has great natural resources. The "catastrophe", however, did come, as we shall see, in the American War of Independence.

THE QUEBEC ACT

In 1774, the British Parliament passed the Quebec Act. At that time the British were having difficulties with the other colonies in America. Because they wanted to please the Canadians and keep them loyal, the Quebec Act extended the boundaries of Quebec to include their old fur-trading territory, the Ohio Valley, and provided that French law was to be used except in criminal cases. Instead of granting the right to elect an Assembly, the act established a Legislative Council to be appointed by the governor which would advise him and pass laws. Roman Catholics might be appointed to this council, and the governor chose some of the leading seigniors to be members. The act also said that the priests should continue to have the right to collect tithes (a percentage of the crop grown by the habitants) from the members of their church. The Quebec Act pleased the seigniors and the clergy; the habitants did not like it very much because they did not like having to pay the tithes again.

BRITISH SETTLERS IN NOVA SCOTIA

In 1713 the British had regained Acadia and renamed it Nova Scotia. The British came to govern and to garrison the forts, but few British settlers came to make their homes in the new colony. In 1749, however, when it was obvious that there was likely to be war again between France and Britain in America, a party of settlers, mostly retired soldiers, was sent out under Colonel Cornwallis to found a settlement at Halifax. The British Government hoped that this settlement would help to keep Nova Scotia for Britain in the struggle which was coming. Later a few settlers came from Germany, a few from Switzerland, a few from Ireland, and some Protestant refugees came from France. But the population grew slowly.

Then in 1755, when the Acadians who refused to take the oath of allegiance to Britain were driven out of the colony, their rich farm lands were deserted. The governor invited settlers from New England to come to take up these good lands. He realized that if war was coming Nova Scotia would need more settlers to defend it. A large number came from New England and settled on the farms which had belonged to the exiled Acadians.

There was, therefore, a beginning of a sturdy British community in Nova Scotia before the surrender of Canada.

THE FIRST ASSEMBLY IN NOVA SCOTIA

The British settlers who came to Halifax with Lord Cornwallis expected that they would have the right to elect an Assembly to make laws for them, just as the people in the colonies to the south did. Cornwallis was a soldier, accustomed to giving orders, and he was sure that he knew what was best for the colony. He did not see any need for

Halifax, 1749.

an Assembly. His successor, Governor Lawrence, made the danger of war with France an excuse for not arranging for an election.

However, when settlers from the New England colonies came to take over the rich Acadian farm lands they began to demand an Assembly. Election of representatives had been a basic feature of New England's government. Still the governor delayed, declaring that while the country was at war, it was safer to have all authority in the hands of one person. After Louisbourg was taken by the British, there was no longer any excuse for delay. At last an election was held. The first Assembly of the province of Nova Scotia met in the Court House in Halifax on October 2nd, 1758.

This was the first elected Assembly, the first step in self-government, in what is now known as Canada.

A GROWING COLONY

After the fall of Louisbourg, more settlers came from New England to take over the rest of the abandoned farms of the Acadians in the Annapolis Valley, in the Basin of Minas in Cobequid Bay, and along the Isthmus of Chignecto. Adventurous fishermen and lumbermen from New

England built villages along the rocky coast. Some of the Acadians who had been driven from their homes in 1755 found their way back and, if they could not have their own farms, took up other land. The population increased steadily.

For Further Study

1. Make a mural depicting Frontenac at Cataraqui with the Iroquois. (See *The Fighting Governor* by Charles W. Colby, Chronicles of Canada Series.)
2. Tell the story of the attack on Schenectady as one of the French soldiers might have told it.
3. Describe the attack on Schenectady as one of the survivors might have done after he returned to England.
4. Relate the story of the expulsion of the Acadians as Governor Lawrence might have told it ten years after he retired from the army.
5. Tell the story of the expulsion of the Acadians as one of the young farmers who was driven away from Grand Pré might have told it forty years later to his grandchildren. (Read Longfellow's *Evangeline*, which tells the story of the sufferings of the Acadians.)
6. Compare the experiences of the Acadians with those of the inhabitants of a village in Poland during World War II. Note that no Acadians were put to death and none were put in concentration camps.
7. Tell the story of Braddock's defeat as one of the junior officers who had been trained in European methods of warfare might have told it after he returned to England. He would have to admit that Braddock should have listened to George Washington's advice.
8. Luck was with the British in the first capture of Louisburg. Show how luck was still with the British in the capture of Quebec in 1759.
9. For your Book of Ships, draw a British man-of-war of the kind in which Wolfe and his army came to Quebec.

10. There are some interesting stamps commemorating events in this unit. There is one with Wolfe and Montcalm, side by side, another with a picture of the citadel at Quebec. There is a 1959 stamp commemorating the taking of Quebec. Another has a picture of the church and the memorial to Evangeline at Grand Pré. See how many you can add to your stamp collection.

11. Present a discussion between two seigniors, one of whom decides to stay in Canada after the coming of the British, and one of whom plans to go back to France. Give the reasons why they make these decisions.

12. Make a poster advertising the fertile Acadian fields to the New Englanders.

US
BANKS

VI. *The Parting of the Ways*

26. Restlessness in the English Colonies

> "We must be free or die, who speak the tongue
> That Shakespeare spake; the faith and morals hold
> Which Milton held."
>
> WILLIAM WORDSWORTH: *It Is Not To Be Thought Of*

By the end of the Seven Years War, the Thirteen Colonies were well established. All along the Atlantic coast the towns were prosperous centres of trade. Across their wharves went the imports of manufactured goods from England and the colonial exports of tobacco, timber, pitch, turpentine, rum, corn, grains and other commodities to be carried in New England ships to the West Indies, Acadia and England.

While the towns were thriving, more than ninety per cent of the colonists lived on the land. In the south were the great plantations where their owners lived in stately white-columned mansions surrounded by the shacks of slaves and indentured servants. In the central colonies small farm-houses mingled with the large stone homes of wealthier landowners, while throughout the back-country, scattered through the valleys and beginning to spread over into the Tennessee-Kentucky-Ohio country, were the log cabins of the pioneers. Month by month the forest line was being pushed farther westward, pushed by large frontier families who, like all colonial farm families, worked long and hard to produce not only their food, but their leather, fur and woollen clothing, their soap, and nearly all their own household furniture and utensils. It was a hard life, often endangered by Indian raids, but it was also a life which brought great happiness, and which encouraged families to come together to solve their common problems in barn-raising, quilting, or other kinds of "bees". It made the American pioneer self-reliant and ambitious, but it also taught him the virtue of co-operation.

In the towns and villages some men were beginning to manufacture articles of clothing and furniture in their own workshops. Some, too, were beginning to use water-power to operate flour-mills, and even to make pig-iron and from it iron utensils. As this stage of development arrived and as people who had been born in the colonies began to think of America as their native land, the desire for freedom from English rule began to grow.

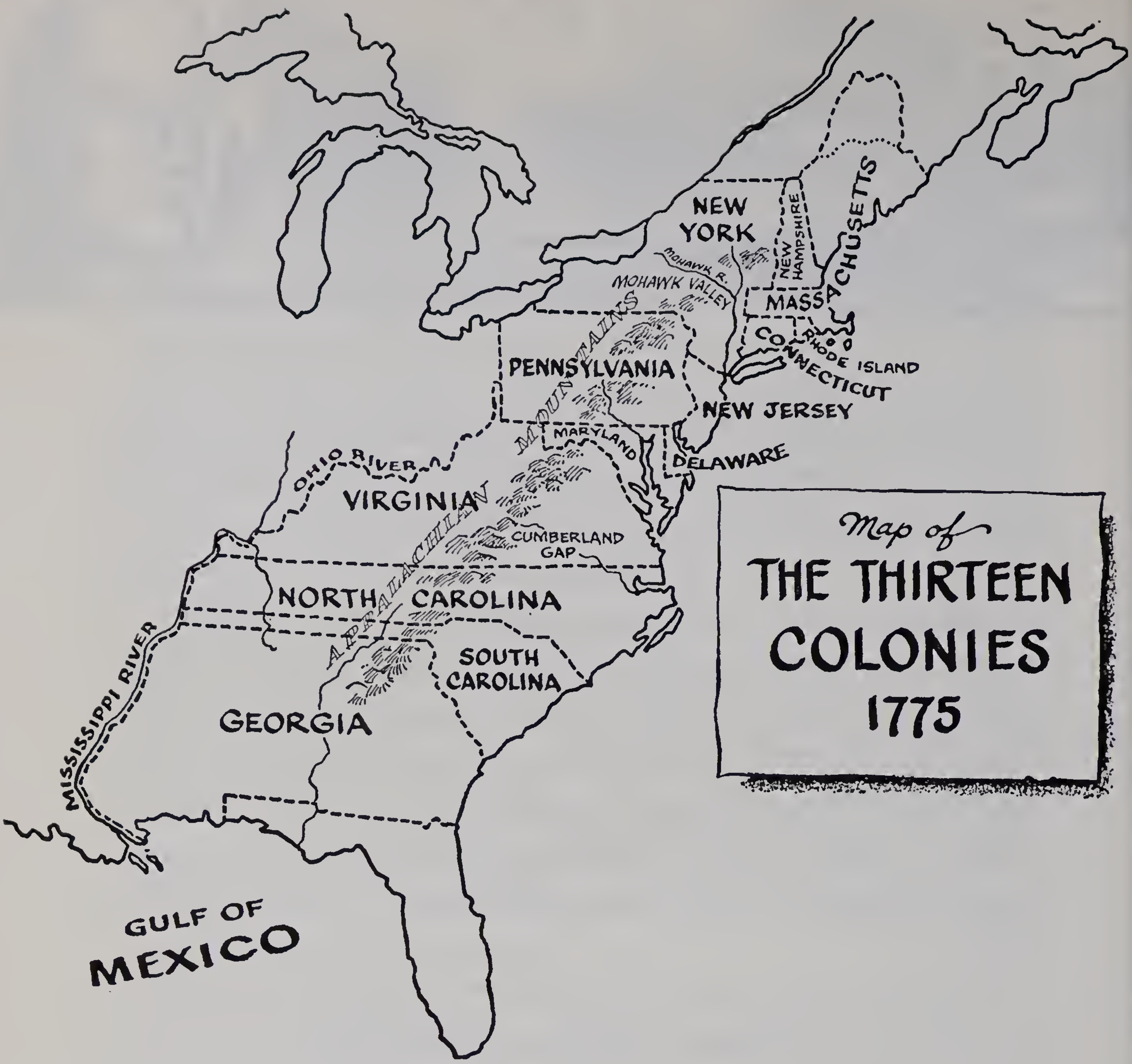
THE "FIRST CIVILIZED AMERICAN"

The most distinguished of the colonists was one who began to feel quite early that there was something special about being "American". His name was Benjamin Franklin. Franklin was proud of being a British subject, but he was also very independent and eventually he helped to overthrow British control in the Thirteen Colonies. He was born in Boston in 1706 and ran away to Philadelphia when he was seventeen. There he became a printer and a writer and published a magazine known as *Poor Richard's Almanack.* This was widely read throughout the colonies and it helped to make the colonists aware that they all had something in common.

Franklin had a very enquiring mind and immense energy. He was the founder of a university in Philadelphia, as well as of a scientific society and circulating libraries. He believed very strongly in education for everyone and himself conducted many scientific experiments which helped to create the interest in natural science which has always been an American trait. While investigating the nature of electricity he invented the lightning-rod; and he became widely known in Europe through his writing on scientific subjects. The invention of bifocal glasses is credited to him, and a special kind of heating stove (still known as the Franklin stove).

Franklin was chosen by his fellow-colonists to represent the interests of Pennsylvania in London. In 1754, at a meeting in Albany of representatives from all the colonies, he suggested that they should all form a federation for their mutual defence and welfare. His idea was not accepted then, but he became a member of the convention that drew up the American constitution after the Revolution.

It was quite clear by the end of the Seven Years War that a community of a million and a half people which could produce men of the calibre of Franklin would soon be very likely to claim the right to govern itself in all important respects. The question which remained to be settled was whether the colonies could gain more control of their government without a complete break with the Mother Country.


Map of THE THIRTEEN COLONIES 1775

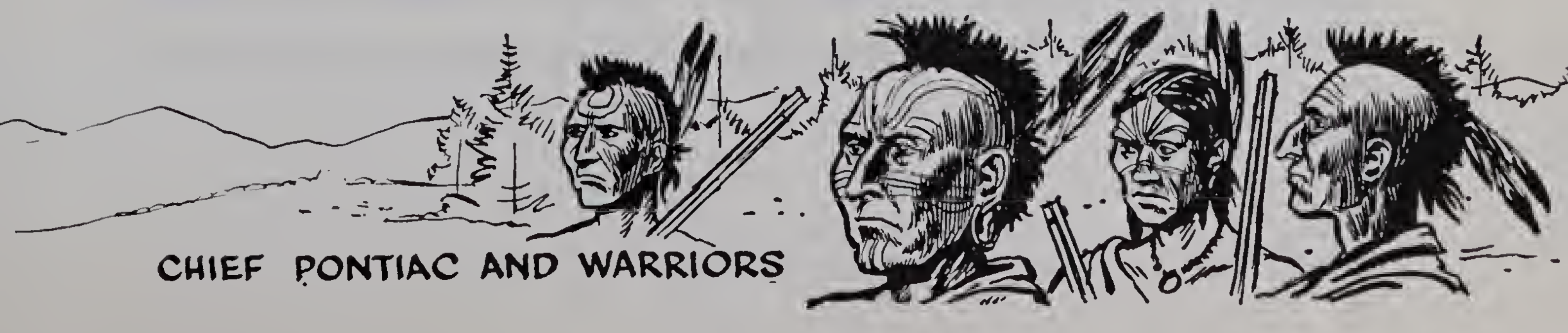
THE COLONIES NO LONGER FEAR THEIR NEIGHBOURS

When in 1763 the threat of war with France on the north or with Spain on the south was removed, the people of the Thirteen Colonies no longer had to depend upon Britain's army and navy for protection. New England settlers did not live in dread of attacks by the French and their Indian allies; New England shipping was no longer harassed by French pirates who took shelter at Louisbourg. Traders from the colonies could go into the Ohio Valley without fear that the French would drive them out.

The Ohio Valley, however, was one of the causes of discontent. This large area between the Allegheny Mountains and the Mississippi River was not made into a province, nor was it given to any of the existing colonies. The British had a very good reason for this decision. Just at the end of the war, the Indians of the interior under Pontiac, Chief of the Ottawa tribe, had risen in revolt because they feared that they would lose their hunting grounds to English settlers. Pontiac organized his revolt skilfully, sending messengers to all the tribes and telling them that the French would return and urging them to rise against the English.

At the appointed time, May 1763, the Indians from Louisiana to the Great Lakes were on the war-path. In less than three weeks they had captured all the English posts but Fort Pitt, Detroit, and Michilimackinac. Then the Indians took Michilimackinac by a clever trick. They began a game of lacrosse in front of the fort. The soldiers and the fur-traders, not suspecting any danger, were watching the game. Suddenly the ball was thrown over the palisade into the fort. The Indians rushed for the gate, and as they went they grabbed from their squaws the guns which had been hidden under their blankets. Ruthlessly they killed and scalped their helpless victims. They did not succeed in taking Fort Pitt or Detroit, but these forts were besieged for months. Indian raiders terrorized the frontier settlements until peace was made in 1766.

Pontiac's war had made the British realize that something must be done to keep peace with the Indians, so a


CHIEF PONTIAC AND WARRIORS

royal proclamation was issued forbidding settlers to move into the land beyond the Allegheny Mountains. The crest of the mountain range was called the "Indian Line". Two Superintendents of Indian Affairs were appointed to look after the territory and make treaties with the tribes. This made it possible for the Indians to live in the Ohio Valley as they had in the past. The fur-trading posts were re-established and traders who had licences were allowed to enter. British soldiers were sent to see that the Indians made no more raids and that the settlers did not cross the Indian line.

This made the colonists very angry. The good lands in the tide-water areas were taken up, and the settlers wanted new land. For the colonists, possession of the Ohio Valley had been one of the chief reasons they had taken part in the Seven Years War. Now the Mother Country would not let them settle in it.

THE COLONIES RESENT BRITAIN'S CONTROL OF THEIR TRADE

All the countries of Europe which had colonies—Britain, France, the Netherlands, Spain, Portugal—believed that their colonies existed to strengthen and bring wealth to the Mother Country. The colonists were expected to supply raw materials, furs, fish, tobacco, grain, and lumber, for the Mother Country and to buy their manufactured goods from the Mother Country and from no one else. As they became more prosperous, however, they wanted to make goods for themselves. But it was against the law to manufacture many articles. For example, the colonists were not permitted to make hats out of the beaver skins obtained from the Indians. The furs had to be shipped to England, made up there, and bought at a high price by any colonist who could afford a beaver hat. When the colonies were young, these restrictions did not matter. The settlers were so busy making new homes they had no time to manufacture for themselves or trade with other countries. When they became more prosperous, however, they wanted to manufacture goods for themselves.

If traders from the colonies sailed to any other countries but Britain or British colonies, they had to pay a tax to Britain on the goods bought or sold. Naturally, the colonists did not like this: they wanted to sell their goods for as much as possible and to pay as little as possible for what they bought. Many of them paid no attention to the laws and smuggled goods in and out. In fact, smuggling became so common, that the officials sent to the colonies to enforce the trade laws did not make much effort to stop it because they knew it would be almost impossible. But the British Government wanted the revenue so it sent out new officials to enforce the trade laws strictly and put a stop to smuggling. Since many of the wealthy colonial merchants depended upon smuggled goods for their profits, they had no objection to evading laws made by the Mother Country. When the officials became stricter, the colonists became more critical of the British Government.

NO TAXATION WITHOUT REPRESENTATION

The Seven Years War had been very expensive, and the troops guarding the frontier had to be paid. Although some of the colonists had fought in the war with the French, they had not contributed nearly as many men or as much money as the war in America cost. The colonies had, however, gained great benefits from the war. They no longer had to fear raids from the north or attacks by pirates from Louisbourg, and they could trade freely in areas formerly controlled by the French. The British Government decided to tax the colonies to help pay for the war.

In 1765 a Stamp Act required the colonists to have legal papers, newspapers, and other papers stamped by a government official. The cost was not very great but the colonists said that since they did not send representatives to the British Parliament, then Parliament had no right to tax them. To show their resentment, they refused to buy goods from England. This made the British manufacturers and merchants alarmed about losing business and they protested against the act. Their protests were very much more effective than the protests of the colonists had been and Parliament repealed the Stamp Act in 1766.

Nevertheless, the colonists thought they had won a great victory. They soon found out that they were mistaken. Even in the Act which repealed the Stamp Act Parliament declared it had the *right* to pass any law for governing the colonies. Then it passed the Townshend Acts, which placed duties on tea, lead, glass, and paint. The revenue from these duties was to be used to pay the army officers and the governors in America.

Once again the colonists refused to buy from Britain; once again the British business men demanded the repeal of the Acts. They were all repealed except the tax on tea which was continued in order to show that Britain had the *right* to tax the colonies. The colonists formed associations promising not to drink tea. It was considered unpatriotic to buy, sell, or drink tea.

At this time the East India Company was in financial difficulties. In order to help the company, which maintained Britain's power in India, the government gave it special permission to sell its tea in America without paying the usual tax that had to be paid in England. Tea commissioners were sent out to the chief ports and their duty was to collect the new tax at the American ports. It was a small tax, three pence a pound, and actually the colonists would have paid less for their tea than the citizens of England had to pay.

By this time, however, resentment in the colonies was growing rapidly. They were convinced that taxation without representation was unfair and they were actually more concerned about this principle than about the price of tea. Nevertheless, few of them, if any, at that time wanted to break away from the Mother Country.

THE BOSTON TEA PARTY

When three ships of the East India Company arrived in Boston late in the fall of 1773 to unload their cargoes, the people of Boston determined not to allow the tea to be unloaded. A band of merchants, disguised as Indians, their faces painted and tomahawks in their hands, boarded the ships, smashed open the tea-chests, and poured the tea into the harbour. Tea worth £18,000 was dumped into Boston Bay—an event since known as the Boston Tea Party.

This was an act of open defiance. It stirred up opinion in the other colonies in favour of the men who had resisted the tax. Naturally, too, it brought action from the British Government.

THE INTOLERABLE ACTS

Early in 1774 the British Parliament passed what the colonists called the Intolerable Acts. The port of Boston was to be closed until the tea was paid for; meetings of

Boston merchants spark the Revolution by throwing a shipment of tea belonging to the East India Company into Boston harbour.

town councils and of the Massachusetts Assembly were prohibited; Boston was to provide free housing for British troops.

The Quebec Act of 1774 was also considered another "Intolerable Act". It did not grant the elected assembly which the British merchants in Canada wanted. The people of the Thirteen Colonies thought that this showed that the British Government did not favour elected assemblies, and might limit the power of their own assemblies or even abolish them entirely. Worse still, the Quebec Act extended the boundaries of Quebec to include the Ohio Valley. Colonists as far south as Virginia saw this as a permanent barrier to their expansion west. The Act also strengthened the Roman Catholic clergy by giving them the right to collect dues and tithes from their people as they had done during the French period. The descendants of the Puritans in New England resented this; they did not want a strong Roman Catholic colony on their border.

THE COLONIES MEET TO PROTEST

In September, 1775, the colonial assemblies sent representatives to a meeting in Philadelphia to protest to the British Government. The group called itself the Continental Congress. This Congress appealed to Britain to change her policy toward the colonies and to concede their right to be taxed only by men of their own choosing. They firmly believed that their demands were made as members of the British Empire seeking only "the rights of Englishmen". In their own words the purpose of the Congress was to "consult upon the present state of the colonies, and the miseries to which they are and must be reduced by the operation of certain acts of Parliament respecting America, and to deliberate and determine wise and proper measures to be . . . recommended to all the colonies, for the recovery and establishment of their just rights and liberties, civil and religious, and the restoration of union and harmony between Great Britain and the colonies, most ardently desired by all good men." Such was the purpose of the men who established the Continental Congress. But, step by step, they moved on to Revolution.

27. The American War of Independence

"By the rude bridge that arched the flood,
  Their flag to April's breeze unfurled,
Here once the embattled farmers stood
  And fired the shot heard round the world."

RALPH WALDO EMERSON: *Concord Hymn*

When it became clear that George III and his government were not going to make any concessions, the colonists prepared to take up arms to defend their rights.

Patrick Henry of Virginia was the great orator of the American War of Independence. When he was urging the Virginians to arm for battle, he cried, "Gentlemen may cry peace! peace! but there is no peace! The War is already begun! The next gale that sweeps from the North will bring to our ears the clash of resounding arms! Our brethren are already in the field! . . . Is life so dear, or peace so sweet, as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery? Forbid it, Almighty God! I know not what course others may take, but, as for me, give me liberty or give me death!"

"THE SHOT HEARD ROUND THE WORLD"

When General Gage, Commander of the British garrison at Boston, learned that a large store of arms and ammunition had been collected at the nearby villages of Concord and Lexington, he sent seven hundred men to confiscate the arms. Members of the Sons of Liberty watched Gage's movements carefully. They arranged to flash lantern signals from the steeple of Boston's North Church to tell when the British soldiers were setting out and what route they were taking. Two men were watching the church steeple from the edge of the town. They were Paul Revere and William Dawes. When the beacon shone forth they jumped on their horses and aroused the farmers and villagers all along the route to Concord and Lexington.

When the British detachment reached Lexington, the colonial militiamen were ready, but they were not strong enough to hold back the trained troops of the British army. Some military stores were destroyed by the British, but, on the return march to Boston, the colonial militiamen "stung" many of the redcoats from behind the trees and rocks they knew so well.

This was the first bloodshed of the American War of Independence. It was a war which divided the English-speaking peoples, created the basis of the United States of America, and provided Canada with her first great influx of English-speaking settlers. It was a war in which brother sometimes fought against brother and father against son.

Paul Revere crossed over to Charlestown and galloped away towards Lexington and Concord, calling the Minute Men to battle.

Many of the people in the colonies were not in favour of taking up arms against the Mother Country, and many people in Britain thought the colonists were right to fight against oppression. There were brave men fighting on both sides but both sides had many difficulties. The British Minister of War, Lord Germain, was a stupid and inefficient man; many of the generals were incompetent; thousands of the people in Britain were opposed to the war. The colonial armies were often poorly equipped; the soldiers enlisted for short terms and when their term was up they went home; thousands deserted when they seemed to be losing the war.

ETHAN ALLEN TAKES TICONDEROGA AND CROWN POINT

The first man to lead an attack on a British fort was Ethan Allen. He had fought in the Seven Years War against the French. Afterwards he and some of his friends were given grants of land in the Green Mountains by the Governor of New Hampshire. But New York also claimed their lands and called on them to pay again for the farms they had cleared. They refused and banded together under Ethan Allen to defend their claims. Whenever settlers or surveyors from New York appeared Allen led his men on "a big wolf hunt" to throw them out. To the Green Mountain boys, Governors, Kings and soldiers were the enemies of free settlers. When the Governor of New York offered £100 for Allen's capture, the new-world Robin. Hood rode into Albany, the capital, and came away untouched.

The fortress of Ticonderoga was known to everyone in New England. Old Ti had been the key to Canada in the French wars; many good men had died there and armies had been stopped. It stood high above the lower end of Lake Champlain, two miles across the water from the Green

Mountain boys. They were not trained soldiers and the fort was held by British regulars. Still, it was a temptation and a challenge.

Allen sent out the call to "a big wolf hunt" and sent a spy to study the fort. He returned with news of a break in the outer wall and a garrison of less than fifty soldiers. Other scouts returned with stolen boats. As dawn grew, three boats loaded with about eighty men crept across the water. In the half-light the men stepped ashore quietly and followed Allen. The sentry at the broken wall was silenced. Then, whooping like Indians, the Green Mountain boys burst into the old fortress.

Allen was led by a frightened British soldier to the commander's quarters. Here he sprang up the stairs waving his sword. At the top stood a sleepy officer in uniformed coat but without his breeches. He demanded by what authority the men entered His Majesty's fortress. Allen answered: "In the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress." In a few minutes, without a shot being fired, the fort was his. The next day his men took Crown Point. The way to Canada lay open, and a great prize of cannon and military stores had been won. The unbelievable news ran like a lighted fuse through the colonies.

THE FATHER OF HIS COUNTRY

The Congress appointed George Washington of Virginia to be commander-in-chief of their armies. Washington, like most of the colonists, was not a trained soldier, as were the British generals, but he had fought under Braddock at Fort Duquesne. The appointment of Washington was, perhaps, the most important single act of Congress. Washington was not eager to accept the responsibility, for he knew he lacked military experience, but he proved to be a truly great man. He was able to bear the burden of great responsibility, and was steadfast in the face of criticism when he was sure he was right. His devotion to the cause won him the name "Father of his Country". Many times he had to retreat when he was faced by overpowering armies; often his generals were critical and suggested that he was too cautious; his armies were poorly equipped, poorly fed, poorly trained—but he held them together and led them to victory after long years of bitter fighting.

THE ATTACK ON CANADA

The bloodless capture of Ticonderoga made the conquering of Canada seem easy. In the autumn of 1775 General Richard Montgomery led an army up Lake Champlain toward Montreal. At the same time Colonel Benedict Arnold was leading a picked force up the Kennebec and down the Chaudière rivers to attack Quebec.

Ahead of Montgomery went Ethan Allen, brave and overconfident. He intended to persuade French Canadians to join him in liberating their country. Allen reached the St. Lawrence opposite Montreal with about a hundred men. Making careless arrangements about support and dreaming of a greater Ticonderoga, he crossed the river. Rough weather prevented support from reaching him and after a short scuffle he and his men were taken prisoner. He was sent in chains to Pendennis Castle in England. There for a few months the famous victor of Ticonderoga was a wonder to the countryside as he walked in the Castle yard in buckskins and with hair to his shoulders. Soon afterward he was sent home and exchanged for another prisoner.

Meanwhile Montgomery and Arnold had failed in Canada. Montreal had fallen easily to Montgomery, and the Governor, Sir Guy Carleton, had barely escaped. With

American troops on both sides of the St. Lawrence, Carleton drifted downstream between their watch fires in an open whale-boat. He was disguised as a Canadian habitant in homespun with red tuque and sash and wearing moccassins. Arnold reached Quebec soon after Carleton closed the gates, and Montgomery a few days later. The Americans outnumbered Carleton's forces but had no siege guns. Carleton drilled his men and waited. When Montgomery summoned him to surrender he did not reply.

The weather grew colder and the American soldiers without proper clothing or shelter suffered greatly. Food became scarce. The Canadian farmers who had gladly given food in exchange for gold and silver refused the Congress paper money which they were now offered.

Finally, on New Year's Eve 1775, with a fierce snowstorm swirling about them, the Americans attacked. In the hope of surprise, they stormed the barricade into the Lower Town near the river. Arnold led the attack from the east, Montgomery from the west. Montgomery's men, with papers stuck in their hats reading "Liberty or Death", managed to open a hole in the barricade under cover of the storm. As his last brave act before he died, Montgomery led the way through the breach and his men poured after him. But the cannon covering the barrier cut a path of iron and orange flame through the driving snow. Then there was silence, with only the cries of the dying heard above the storm. At the east end, Arnold broke in but was wounded and forced back. The last attack on Quebec had failed.

Arnold and his men continued the grim siege until May but it was hopeless. Disease, hunger and cold fought against them. When British ships with reinforcements reached Quebec, Carleton led his troops out to attack, but the Americans were by this time in full retreat.

LOYALIST SOLDIERS OFFER THEIR SERVICES

From the beginning of the war the colonists had been arresting or mistreating any Americans who were sympathetic to the British. Many of these unhappy people escaped to Canada, among them three who were to play an important part. Those men were Sir John Johnson, Colonel John Butler and Joseph Brant. Sir John Johnson was the son of Sir William Johnson, the great Indian Commissioner. When the son was driven off his great estate in the Mohawk Valley many of his people went with him and formed the King's Royal Regiment of New York. The "Royal Greens" fought fiercely throughout the war.

Colonel Butler was a neighbour of Johnson and a good soldier. Joseph Brant, war chief of the Mohawks, was an educated man, respected by the English and a leader among the Iroquois. Butler formed a corps known as Butler's Rangers with headquarters at Niagara, and Brant with his warriors joined him. The Rangers and Indians, fighting fiercely for their own land, were a source of hatred and bitterness in upper New York and Pennsylvania. Butler and Brant with their followers lived to be old and respected men on lands granted them in Canada for their loyalty.

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

As one battle followed another between the redcoats and the colonial militiamen, bitterness grew. No easy peace could heal so deep a wound. Those colonists who wanted independence were called the "radicals"; those who wished to remain in the British Empire were called "Tories" or "Loyalists". Although many of the colonists were Tories at heart or else had not made up their minds, the radicals won the day in the Continental Congress. On July 4th, 1776, they obtained a majority of votes for a Declaration of Independence.

This document, which was written mostly by the great Virginian, Thomas Jefferson, declares

> "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed. . . ."

It continues, setting forth the colonists' grievances against George III. Most serious of these was the complaint against being taxed without consent. In some cases laws had been set aside and trial by jury refused. Trade had been interfered with. And now Indians were being used against the colonists. It set out these and other grievances in detail. The Declaration ended thus:

> "That these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, Free and Independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown; and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved. . . . And for the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honour."

It is an historic moment when Jefferson hands the Declaration to the first signer, as Franklin and the others watch.

These were bold words. This was revolution. And at the same time, Benjamin Franklin was saying, "We must all hang together or assuredly we shall all hang separately."

THE LONG AND BITTER STRUGGLE

Washington succeeded in driving the British out of Boston, but he was unable to hold New York and retreated southward. As he fell back mile after mile, his generals became critical, and hundreds of his men, discouraged by defeat, deserted his army. On Christmas Day, 1776, he crossed the Delaware River and in a sleety snowstorm marched nine miles to Trenton where he surprised the enemy and forced them to surrender. This victory helped to restore confidence but, even so, the worst was still ahead. The British occupied Philadelphia, and Washington's army, without proper food, clothing, or shelter, spent the whole dreadful winter of 1777-8 at Valley Forge, twenty-four miles away. While his army shivered in the wintry blasts, the farmers of the surrounding districts were selling their produce at fancy prices to the British army which was comfortable in its winter quarters in the city.

Meanwhile, the colonists had gained one great victory. "Gentlemanly Johnny" Burgoyne, with a strong army of over five thousand men, had been sent to lead an attack from Canada on the revolutionary forces. Near Saratoga he was stopped by a strong colonial force under General Horatio Gates and in the battle which followed both sides claimed victory. Burgoyne's supply line to Canada was cut off; the reinforcements he expected from the south did not come. Early in October, 1777, he had no choice but to risk another battle, in which he was defeated and had to surrender. The colonists captured a great quantity of supplies and ammunition. This was the first serious defeat for the British.

Britain had been supreme on the sea since the days of the Spanish Armada, but in this war she suffered several defeats at sea. The rebels had no warships but they owned many merchant vessels and they were brave and skilful sailors. They armed their merchant vessels and boldly attacked British ships. The great American naval hero of the War of Independence was John Paul Jones. He captured British supply ships, fought British warships, and even attacked British harbours. It was John Paul Jones who hoisted the first American flag on an American ship.

John Paul Jones was born in Scotland and came to Virginia when he was only sixteen years old. In 1775, when he was only eighteen, he became a lieutenant in the American navy. In the same year he became captain of the *Providence* and in four months captured sixteen enemy vessels.

In 1779, when in command of the *Bon Homme Richard*, he fought the famous battle against the British *Serapis*. The *Richard* was an old and battered ship, but Jones was so skilful a sailor and so sturdy a fighter that he put up a desperate battle. When the British captain saw how badly the *Richard* had been damaged in the fight, he called upon Jones to surrender. That was when John Paul Jones shouted the immortal cry for which he will always be remembered by brave fighters everywhere, "I have not yet begun to fight". Eventually the captain of the *Serapis* surrendered and Jones took possession of the British ship. Not long after the surrender, the damaged *Richard* sank and Jones transferred his men to the captured *Serapis*.

John Paul Jones is honoured by the Americans as the real founder of the American navy and as one of the great naval heroes of all time.

Fortunately for the colonists, Benjamin Franklin in 1778 persuaded the French government to become an ally of the Americans. This meant that the war spread to the overseas holdings of France and of Britain—and even farther when Spain also joined in the world-wide conflict. Even before the French entered the war, a French nobleman, the Marquis de Lafayette, had offered his services to the colonists and had become a member of Washington's staff. He took an important part in the last great battle of the war, the defeat of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown. In that battle more than half of the attackers were French regular soldiers, and it was the naval blockade under the French Admiral De Grasse that prevented British ships from reinforcing the British army. The surrender of Lord Cornwallis at Yorktown marked the end of the fighting in America.

BRITAIN RECOGNIZED THE INDEPENDENCE OF THE THIRTEEN COLONIES

In 1783, when the Treaty of Paris was signed, a new nation was born, the United States of America.

The treaty established the Mississippi as the western border of the new nation. The boundary line on the north was to be the southern boundary of Nova Scotia and Quebec to the St. Lawrence River, then through the Great Lakes and west to the Lake of the Woods, thence due west to the source of the Mississippi. No one knew then that a line drawn west from the Lake of the Woods does not strike the source of the Mississippi. This caused trouble later.

The new boundary handed over to the Americans the hunting-grounds which the British had given to the Indians after Pontiac's rebellion. Several important Canadian fur-trading posts were now in American territory. The Indians of the Ohio Valley knew and respected the Canadian fur-traders. They knew, too, that the Americans would come not as fur-traders but as settlers and would drive the Indians out of their hunting-grounds. When some of the American traders and settlers who tried to move into the country were attacked by the Indians (who refused to accept the fact that the land was no longer theirs) the Americans believed that the British were encouraging the Indians against them.

The treaty also stated that payment should be made to the Loyalists for the property they lost during the war. When some of the Loyalists went back to their old homes to try to collect, many of them were ill-treated by their former neighbours and few collected any payment.

Some Loyalists return to claim their property but are run out of town.

When the Americans complained that the British were not keeping their promise to move out of the forts, the British replied that the Americans were not keeping their promise about fair treatment of the Loyalists. Washington and the men in the central government of the United States agreed that the Americans should keep their promises but they had no power to make the individual states do so. The British had agreed to move out of the trading-posts by 1796 but they put it off as long as possible, partly because they wanted to enjoy the fur trade as long as they could, and partly because they were afraid there would be trouble with the Indians if they left. The local Indians might rise against the white men and rouse other Indians, thus putting all white people in danger.

28. The Loyalists Find New Homes

> "Not drooping like poor fugitives they come,
> In exodus to the Canadian wilds,
> But full of heart and hope, with heads erect,
> And fearless eyes victorious in defeat."
>
> WILLIAM KIRBY: *The Hungry Year*

About a hundred thousand people remained loyal to Great Britain during the American War of Independence. As the war progressed in favour of the rebels, these people were in a very difficult position. Many who were known or suspected of helping the British were treated harshly by their neighbours. Some were lynched and their bodies hung by the roadside; others were dragged through horse-ponds, or dipped in troughs of tar, rolled in feathers and ridden on a rail through the town. Their houses and barns were burned, their lands and goods confiscated.

Many of the Loyalists sought safety in flight to Canada. Some came by the Richelieu River route, some crossed at Niagara, others crossed Lake Ontario in small boats. Some of the Royal Greens and Butler's Rangers brought their families with them when they came; others brought them later, as the situation became more difficult in their old homes. Camps were established where these refugees were provided with food and shelter by the government.

At the end of the war, thousands of Loyalists gathered in New York, and there, protected by British forces commanded by Sir Guy Carleton, they remained until British ships came to carry them away. Carleton had been ordered to remain there with his soldiers until everyone who wanted to leave the United States was safely aboard a British ship. Some went to England, some to the West Indies. Thousands decided to come to the British territories in the north.

THE MIGRATION TO NOVA SCOTIA

Carleton estimated that thirty thousand Loyalists took ship for Nova Scotia. Many were taken to Halifax, only to find that there was no room for them in the little town. During the bitter winter of 1783-4, cabins were taken off ships and ranged along the main street to provide shelter for the unhappy refugees.

In the spring and summer of 1783, nearly ten thousand Loyalists arrived at the mouth of the St. John River, where they found that practically no preparation had been made to look after them. They had to clear away the brushwood before they could put up tents or build rough cabins to live in. As the land had not been surveyed, the unfortunate newcomers had to spend the winter in the new town of Saint John. Many of them used up all the money they had been able to bring with them to provide shelter for their families.

"Nothing but wilderness before our eyes," one of the exiles wrote in his diary. "The women and children did not refrain from tears." Another Loyalist, whose grandson, Sir

The Loyalists who were taken to the mouth of the St. John River, where the city of St. John now stands, were bitterly disappointed to find that there was no settlement there and that no preparation had been made for them.

Leonard Tilley, was destined to become a Father of Confederation, later told her children that, as the ships sailed away "such a feeling of loneliness came over me that, although I had not shed a tear all through the war, I sat down on the damp moss, with my baby in my lap, and cried."

Halifax, the centre of government of Nova Scotia, seemed very far away, so it was decided to form a new province west of the isthmus. This was given the name New Brunswick and Fredericton became its capital.

A group of four thousand attempted to found a settlement at Shelbourne. They cleared the land, laid out streets, built homes and stores and churches, and even established three newspapers. Very soon the town grew to ten thousand. The people of Shelbourne had high hopes for its future, certain that it would become more important than Halifax and be the capital of the province. But the surrounding country was not good farm land, the harbour was ice-bound in winter, and there was nothing there to support a prosperous town. In a few years the people moved away and grass grew in the streets.

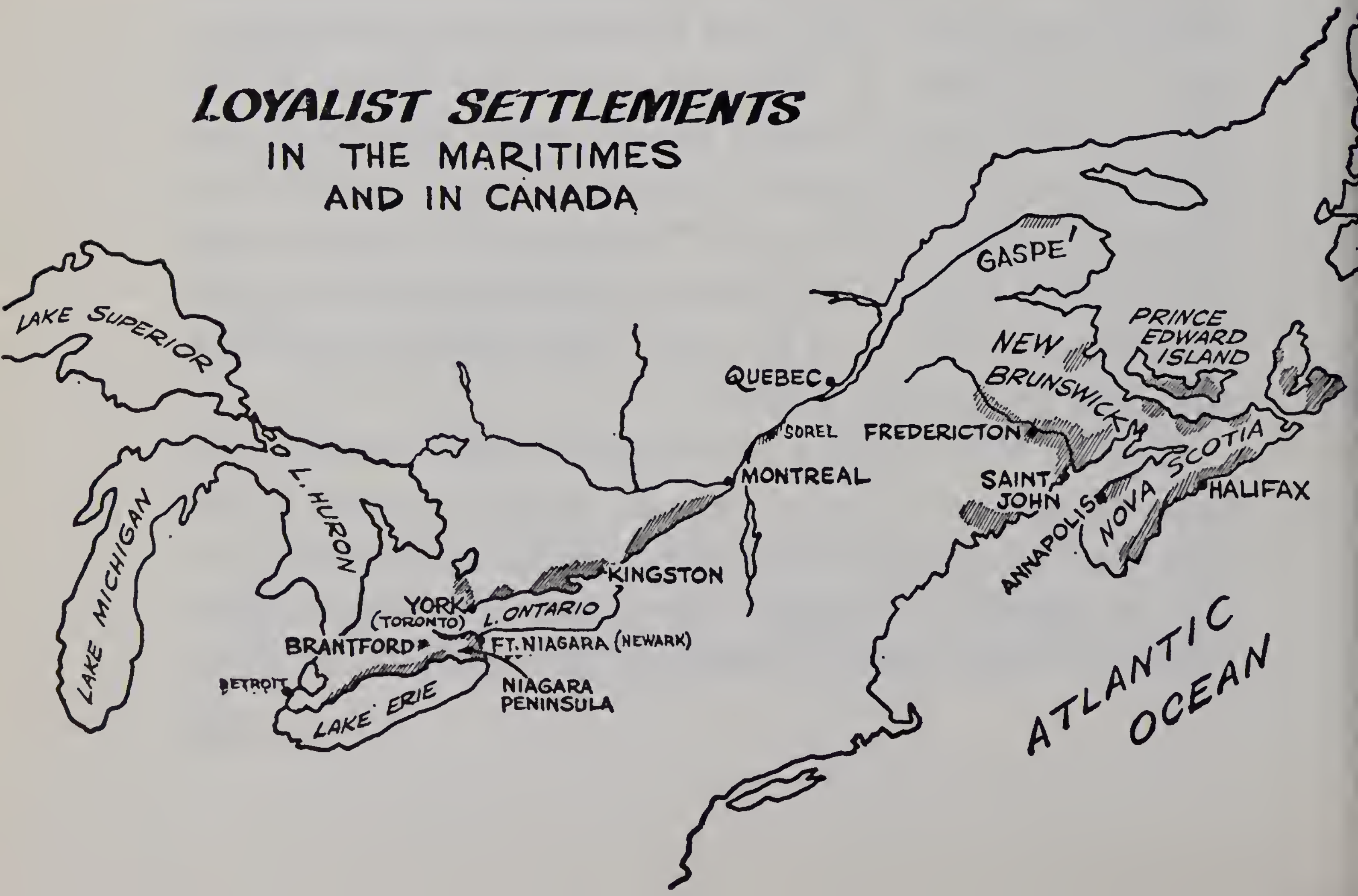
Many of the Loyalists who came to Nova Scotia came from the cities and towns along the Atlantic seaboard and they were not accustomed to the hard work of clearing the land or farming or fishing. There were not many opportunities at that time for business and professional men.

Some of them went to England; others learned to do the hard work necessary to establish new homes in a new land.

THE LOYALISTS IN CANADA

During the war many Loyalists had come to Canada and many more came when the war ended. Some had wagons, some came on horseback, some plodded on foot carrying what they could of their possessions. They came by the Richelieu River route . . . across Lake Ontario and Lake Erie in small boats . . . or crossed at Niagara or Detroit. It was a sad and difficult journey for them. They had lost their homes and most of their possessions because they had been loyal to Britain, and they faced the difficult task of pioneering once more in a new land.

Camps had been established for the refugees during the war, and more camps were set up after the war ended. Sir Frederick Haldimand, who was in charge of looking after the Loyalists who came to Canada, would not allow any of them to settle in the Eastern Townships south and east of Montreal, because he thought that was too close to



Carrying what they can from their old homes, the Loyalists make their way along the rough roads to pioneer once more.

the American border and bitterness between the Loyalists and the Americans was great. One group of Loyalists received land grants in Gaspé peninsula, and another group was given land in the seigniory of Sorel which the government bought for them.

Most of the Loyalists who came to Canada, however, were given land west of Montreal, along the St. Lawrence and Lake Ontario, at Niagara, or along the Detroit River. Sir John Johnson was given the task of taking these people from the camps to their new homes and supervising the settlement. Townships were laid out, and members of the Royal Greens and other Loyalist battalions were granted land along the shore from the western boundary of Quebec to Kingston. Some Loyalists from Pennsylvania and northern New York had come to Niagara and the Detroit River area during the war. After the war, when Butler's Rangers were disbanded, some of them took up land near Niagara.

Joseph Brant and his Iroquois Indians were given two large grants, one near Kingston and the other on the Grand River, where they received all the land extending six miles on each side of the river from Lake Erie to the source of the Grand. Most of Brant's followers settled in the Grand River area. There the first Protestant church of Upper Canada was built. When Brant visited England he was given a bell for his church. The city of Brantford is named after the great Mohawk chief.

THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT HELPS THEM

The British Government had promised free grants of land to the refugees. But the government could not grant land until those lands had been surveyed, and there were very few surveyors in the colonies. The unhappy refugees sometimes had to wait months before they knew where they would be given land. As a district was surveyed, each piece of land suitable for a grant was given a number. A day and a place was set for the distribution of the grants. The numbers were written on pieces of paper and put in a hat, from which each man in his turn drew a slip of paper bearing the number of his grant. The surveyors entered the name and the number on a map.

It must have been very exciting for these men to draw their numbers. Eagerly they turned to look on the map to see where their future homes were to be. Some were fortunate in drawing a grant fronting on water, while others drew poor, rough, stony land, or land which was covered with forest. Whatever it was, it was their own and they had to make the best of it.

Once a Loyalist had his land grant, he could begin to make plans for his home. But he needed many things before he could build a home or clear the land. He needed axes and saws with which to cut down the trees, and tools for building. He needed spades and hoes to prepare his

The Loyalists burn out the stumps as they prepare their land for crops.

patch of cleared land for cultivation, and seed grain and vegetable seeds for planting. Then he needed sickles or scythes to cut his grain.

By the year 1787, more than 3,000,000 acres of land had been given to the Loyalists, and about $30,000,000 spent to help them establish themselves in new homes.

Tools, farm implements, seed grain, and vegetable seeds were sent from Britain. It took time, because the ocean trip was long and transportation to the farms after the goods had been landed was often slow and difficult. Sometimes the articles were not distributed fairly. The government was generous to the Loyalists but it could not foresee all their needs. There were many hardships, many disappointments.

LIFE IN A LOYALIST SETTLEMENT

By the time they received their grant of the land, the Loyalists had very little, if any, money left. They had to spend it, either during their journey or in the settlements while they waited for their grant of land. Few of them could afford to pay anyone to help them. Their first task was to build log cabins from trees which they had cut down and chopped into shape. They had to sow their grain on ground which they had cleared. When the grain

Loyalists build a rough house in the wilderness.

ripened, it had to be cut with a scythe, bound into sheaves, and threshed with a flail.

Many of these pioneers made their own flour by grinding the grain between two stones. Some of them used a "hominy block". To make a "hominy block" they burned a bowl-shaped hole in the centre of a stump. Then they put the grain in this hole and pounded it with a wooden pestle or a stone, if they were lucky enough to find one the right size and shape. Later, when grist-mills were built, the farmer took his grain to the mill, often carrying it on his shoulders, and had it ground into flour.

Wild fruit, strawberries, blueberries, raspberries, and grapes grew in abundance. The first fine day when the berries were ripe, all who could be spared from the work of the house and the farm set out with their pails and their baskets. Even the youngest children could take part in the berry-picking. As they picked they sang or shouted to each other, to keep away any bears who might be coming to feast on the berries. When their containers were full, the berry pickers took the fruit home, where it was either dried for use next winter, or preserved with maple sugar.

Maple syrup and maple sugar were very important products. Every farmer left a clump of maple trees standing, the sugar-bush it was called. Sugar-making time came in the early spring. When the warm sun of March started the sap running in the trees, the farmer set out to tap the trees. He cut a gash in each tree, put a trough below it, and collected the sap in a pail or tub. Near the sugar-bush he set up a large iron pot, suspended from a pole above a fire which he kept burning night and day. There the sap was boiled down to maple syrup and maple sugar. Sugar-making was a happy time for the pioneer families. It marked the beginning of spring after the long cold winter.

Few Loyalists could afford to buy the sugar that was brought from the West Indies, but they were able to obtain a good supply of maple sugar and maple syrup from the trees on their own land.

Usually friends and neighbours were invited to the last boiling of the season, the sugaring-off, they called it, when young and old joined in making and eating the maple taffy.

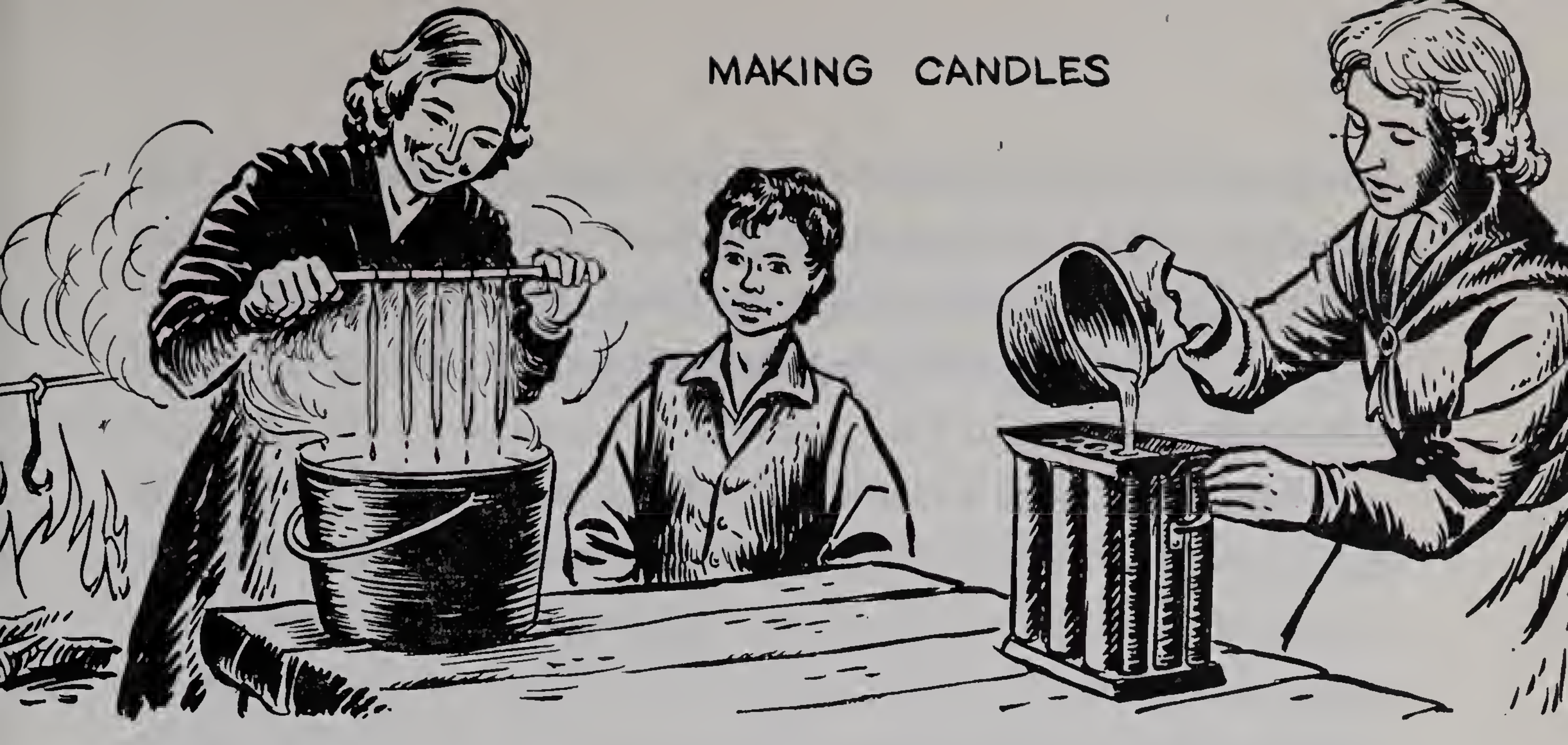
If a settler had a gun, he could usually provide plenty of meat for his family. Deer and rabbits were plentiful when the Loyalists came to Canada. Occasionally, a family lived for weeks on bear-steaks, and roasts and stews of bear-meat. There was good fishing in the streams and rivers and lakes.

There were some things the farmer could not grow, some things he had to buy. One of the most important was salt. It was expensive, but the settlers had to have it to preserve the fish and meat for the seasons when they had no time to fish or hunt, or for the times when game was scarce. Many a farmer walked miles for the precious bag of salt. Then the salt fish and salt meat had to be stored in home-made barrels.

An open fire-place served both for heating the cabin and for cooking. The housewives had long-handled frying-pans which they could hold over the coals, and iron pots which they hung from hooks over the fire.

Even lighting the fire was a problem. These early settlers had no matches. Usually they tried to keep the fire burning in the hearth all the time. They had plenty of good wood which burned like coal. The fire would die down at night, but usually there were glowing embers from which they could start the next day's fire. Sometimes, if the fire did go out, it was easier to walk half a mile or more to a neighbour's house and "borrow some fire", by bringing home some glowing embers in a pail, than it was to start a fire by rubbing wood together, or striking the flint of a gun against a knife blade.

In the winter evenings the fire on the hearth provided a flickering light for the cabin. When more light was needed, because there was work which must be done, tallow dips



The pioneers made their own candles. There were two methods: by dipping the wicks in the tallow until enough tallow formed on them to make candles, or by pouring the tallow into wooden molds into which the wicks had been fastened.

or candles were lit. These candles were made by the housewives from the fat or tallow of the sheep. From fat, too, with lye made from wood ashes, the pioneers made their own soap. It was not dainty or perfumed, but it was all they had.

At first the pioneer women had to make all the clothing for their families. When the clothes they had brought with them wore out, new ones had to be made. They learned from the Indian women how to tan deerskin, for these made warm, sturdy garments.

As soon as the farmers had some sheep, the pioneers had another source of clothing. When the sheep were sheared, the women and children picked, carded, and spun the wool for weaving. They knitted stockings and mittens from the homespun wool or wove it into cloth on home-made looms. Then they coloured it with dyes made from the juices of berries, from sumach and golden-rod and the bark of the butternut tree. Finally, they made it into clothing for the family. Even the daughters of prosperous Loyalists counted themselves fortunate if they could have wedding dresses of calico. The leather for shoes was tanned and prepared at home, and many a farmer spent his winter evenings striving to make shoes for his family. Later, travelling tailors and shoemakers went from farm to farm, taking part of their pay in board and part in goods which they sold in the next town they visited.

When work was to be done which one family could not accomplish by itself, the neighbours came to help. All the neighbours used to gather for a logging-bee to help to clear away the trees the settlers had cut down. A framing- or raising-bee was held when a barn was to be built. For days before the bee was held, the women of the household cooked and baked to provide as good a meal as they could for their helpers. It was a matter of pride to set a good table for the visitors.

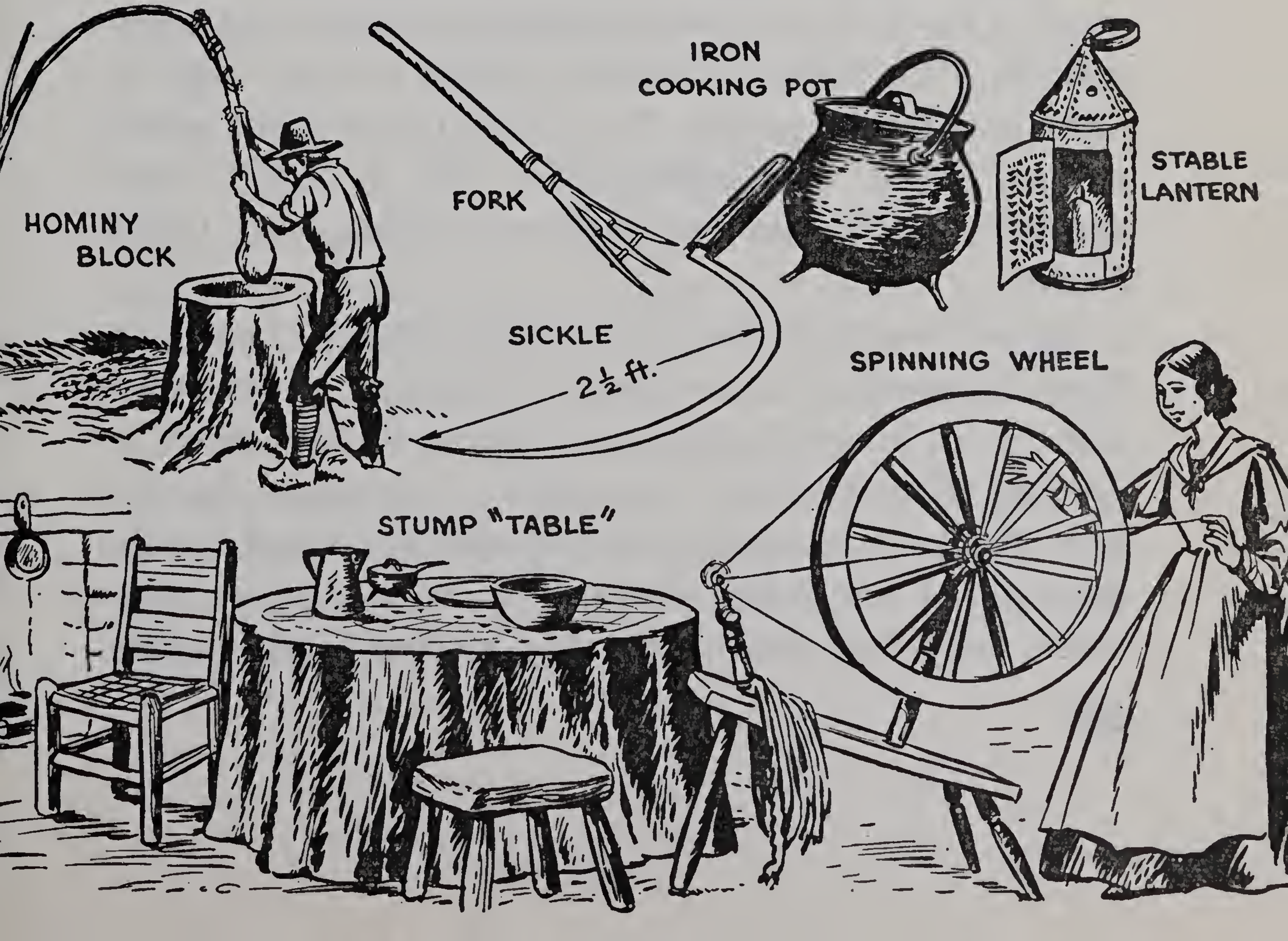
The first homes of the Loyalists were often one-room log cabins. Since glass was scarce and expensive, the windows were usually covered with oiled paper. At first, a blanket served to cover the doorway until sawed lumber could be obtained to make a door. Some of the Loyalists had been able to bring with them a few pieces of furniture or some family heirlooms, perhaps a spinning-wheel, or a clock, or a pair of fire-irons. These relics of their former wealth were in sharp contrast with the rest of the furniture. Chairs, benches, tables, beds, and chests were made by hand from rough wood. A descendant of one of the refugee families states that the family dinner-table was a huge stump, hewn flat on top, standing in the middle of the floor.

The lot of the Loyalists in Upper Canada was even worse than that of those who settled in the Maritime Provinces. Many of them had spent the first winter in misery and discomfort in the camps established for them below Montreal. They were dependent upon the government for everything. It was several seasons before their little clearings in the bush yielded crops sufficient for their needs. The rapids of the St. Lawrence cut them off from the rest of Canada and made the arrival of supplies irregular and uncertain. The government gave out food rations for some years. Unfortunately, the year the rations were stopped, the crop was poor, and the winter very severe. There was little game to be found for food, and many families had neither guns nor powder to shoot what game there was. That year, 1788, was known as the "Hungry Year".

In time, the wilderness was conquered. Land was cleared, some roads and trails were made through the forest, and before long the settlers began to make plans for schools and churches.

WE HONOUR THE LOYALISTS

Many of the colonists had had little experience of manual labour. Yet they faced the task of carving out their new homes in the wilderness with a courage and endurance which was heroic.



Sir Guy Carleton, the governor, decided that some recognition should be given to these people who had remained loyal to Britain during the troubled times. Therefore, he gave them the right to put the initials, U.E.L., for United Empire Loyalists, after their names as a title of honour.

Canadians to-day honour the memory of the United Empire Loyalists for the part they played in building the foundations of our country. Their descendants have reason to be proud of the bravery of their ancestors in facing the difficulties and dangers of pioneer life. The Loyalists opened up great areas of our country. They helped to establish and maintain British methods of government, and they helped to cement the tie between the colonies and the Mother Country.

THE CONSTITUTIONAL ACT AND AN ELECTED LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY

When all these Loyalists came to Canada, it was clear that some change would have to be made in the government. They had been accustomed to electing representatives to a Legislative Assembly which had the right to make laws for the people. The British Government passed an act, called the Constitutional Act, in 1791, which divided Canada into two provinces, Upper and Lower Canada.

Upper Canada, in the upper valley of the St. Lawrence-Great Lake system, is now known as Ontario. Lower Canada, in the lower St. Lawrence valley, is now known as Quebec. Each province was to have a governor, sent out from England; an Executive Council, appointed by the governor; a Legislative Council, appointed by the governor; and a Legislative Assembly, elected by the people.

Legislative means law-making. The Legislative Assembly and the Legislative Council both had the right to propose laws, but no bill could become law unless both bodies agreed upon it, just as to-day no bill can become law in Canada until the House of Commons and the Senate agree on it.

Executive means having the power to act. It comes from the Latin word meaning to "follow to the end". The Executive Council assisted the governor in carrying out the laws which were passed. Its members advised the governor about grants of land, about the building of roads and bridges, and about the appointment of officials, such as postmasters, sheriffs, or judges. As in the Cabinet to-day, each member of the Executive Council usually had one department of government which he looked after.

29. Upper Canada, a Loyalist Province

"Here in centuries to come
When man, his old world conquered,
Turns to these desert solitudes for space
To found new empires, cities will arise
And trade possess the land."
O. J. Stevenson: *The Unconquerable North*

UPPER CANADA'S FIRST LIEUTENANT-GOVERNOR

On the morning of Tuesday, July 30th, 1793, His Majesty's schooner, the *Mississaga*, sailed into Toronto harbour. An English officer and his attractive wife stepped ashore, accompanied by a detachment of Queen's Rangers. On shore an advance party of Queen's Rangers was building an encampment. Except for the partly built encampment, the only dwellings in sight were some Indian wigwams, half-hidden among the trees of the forest which came to the water's edge.

John Graves Simcoe and Mrs. Simcoe are welcomed at Toronto.

Such was the founding of the city of Toronto, which was destined to be the capital of Upper Canada, and Canada's second largest city.

The British officer who landed on the shores of Toronto harbour that July morning was Colonel John Graves Simcoe, the first Lieutenant-Governor of the new province of Upper Canada. Mrs. Simcoe, who so courageously accompanied her husband into this land of forest and Indians, kept a diary which has proved to be of very great value to historians because of its excellent descriptions of her life in Upper Canada. Her diary, with its accounts of the people she met, the places they lived in, the food they ate, and the clothes they wore, the summer home which they called Castle Frank after their little boy, gives us a charming picture of the life of a governor's lady in pioneer days.

Colonel and Mrs. Simcoe had first come to Canada in 1792. In July they visited Kingston, which at that time was a village of about fifty Loyalist families. The people of Kingston hoped that their settlement would become the capital of the province, but Simcoe thought it was too close to the American border, and, because it is in flat country, it would be too difficult to defend against possible attack by the Americans, if trouble should arise between Britain and the United States. He was an experienced soldier, having served in the British army during the American Revolution and his first thought was for defence in the event of war. Moreover, Kingston was too far east to serve as a centre for the province.

While he was in Kingston Colonel Simcoe chose seven members for his Executive Council, and, with their help, he divided the province into nineteen counties and drew up plans for the election of a Legislative Assembly.

THE FIRST LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY IN UPPER CANADA

The Lieutenant-Governor and his party sailed on to Newark, now called Niagara-on-the-Lake, where they were enthusiastically welcomed by the people of the little town. At last Upper Canada had its own Lieutenant-Governor. There in the autumn Colonel Simcoe summoned the first Legislative Assembly in Upper Canada. Though there were only sixteen members, and the Assembly was to meet in a small log building, the occasion was made as impressive as possible. The Lieutenant-Governor and Mrs. Simcoe rode to the opening on horseback, escorted by a guard of honour from the Queen's Rangers. Colonel Simcoe wore his uniform and all his medals; Mrs. Simcoe was dressed in white satin. Cannons boomed to salute them when they arrived. Colonel Simcoe was determined to make the opening of the little Assembly in Upper Canada as nearly like the opening of Parliament in England as he could. The Assembly met for a month, and, under Simcoe's guidance, passed laws for the new province. English civil law, trial by jury, and a system of law courts modelled on those of England were established. One of the laws declared that there should be no negro slaves in Upper Canada.

SIMCOE TOURS THE PROVINCE

Once Colonel Simcoe had organized the government, he set out to study the province and its needs. By this time the population of Upper Canada was probably over ten

Simcoe tours Upper Canada so that he can govern it wisely.

thousand, though no one knew exactly how many people were there, for there had been no census. Settlers were scattered along the north shore of the St. Lawrence, around the Bay of Quinte, and in the Niagara Peninsula. The rest of the province was unbroken wilderness. Simcoe realized that if he was to govern the province wisely he should see it with his own eyes. On foot and on horseback, he travelled hundreds of miles, west as far as Detroit, and north to Georgian Bay. He thought the capital should be in the western part of the province, and not on the shores of Lake Ontario, in case of war with the United States. Naturally, since he had been a soldier, he wanted a site which could be held if war should come again. He chose a spot, where at that time there was not a single house. He named it London, and he named the river on which it was situated the River Thames. London, Ontario, is now a large and prosperous city but it never became the capital of Upper Canada.

HE MOVES TO YORK, NOW TORONTO

In 1793, war broke out between Britain and France. Simcoe thought that the Americans might go into the war to help the French. Newark, he knew, was much too close to the American border for safety. He looked for a site for a temporary capital, and decided to move his headquarters to Toronto Harbour. There, between the mouths of the Humber River and the Don, the French had once had a trading-post called Fort Toronto. This fort had been burned by the French when they abandoned it in 1759. When Simcoe chose it for his headquarters, there were only a few Indian huts there.

Colonel and Mrs. Simcoe lived in a tent on the shores of the harbour while Colonel Simcoe directed the building of the settlement. He planned a blockhouse to guard the entrance to the harbour, and near it he placed the barracks for the Queen's Rangers. East of this his surveyors laid out a town site of ten blocks. He named the town York in honour of one of the King's sons.

After Simcoe returned to England, his successor decided that London would not be a suitable site for the capital because the capital should be where it could be reached by boat. The river Thames is too small for big boats. Thus York became the permanent capital.

SIMCOE INVITES SETTLERS TO UPPER CANADA

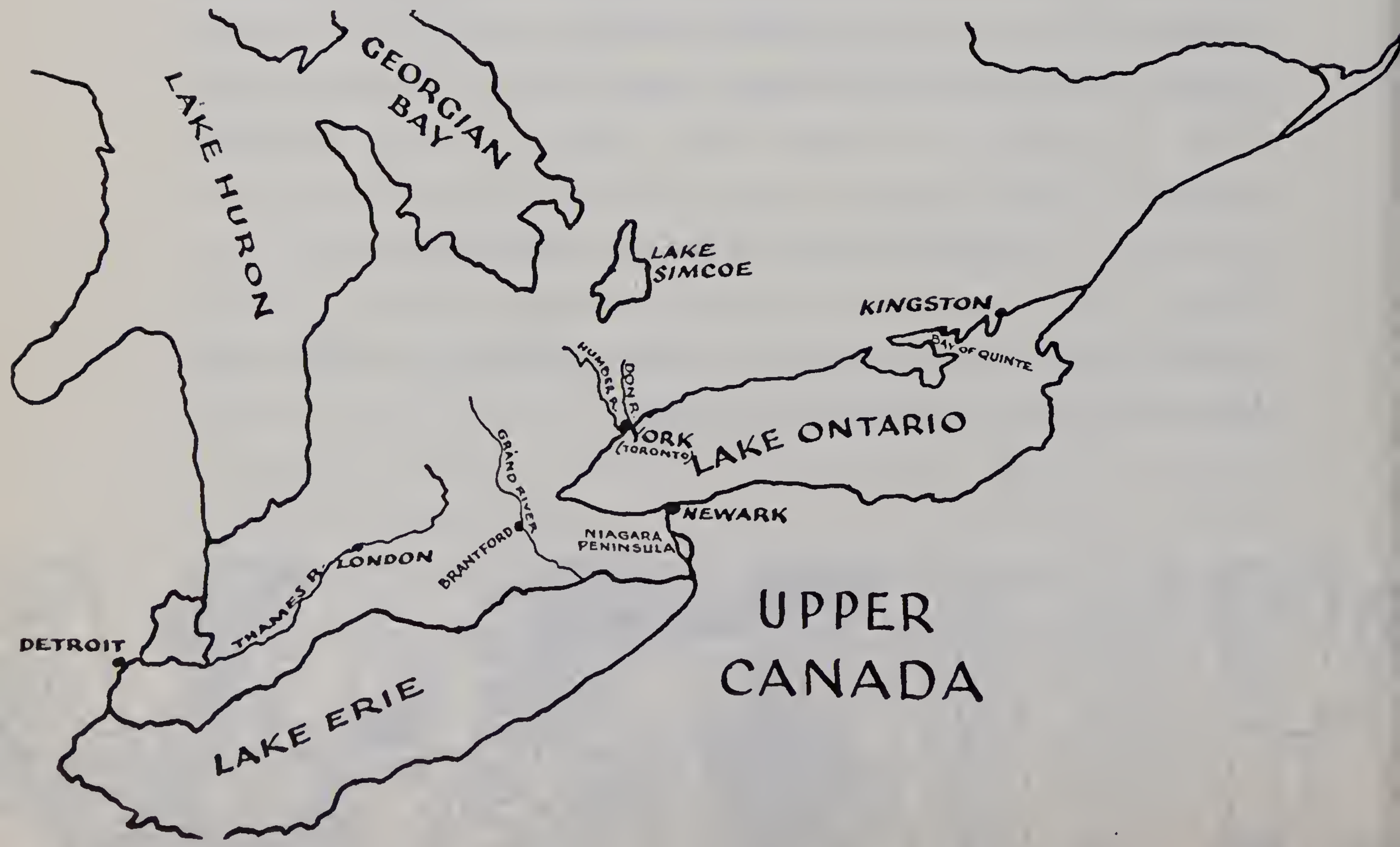
Simcoe realized that what Canada needed most was settlers. He believed that there were many people in the United States who would prefer to live under the British flag. He put advertisements in many newspapers in the United States inviting settlers to come to Upper Canada and he offered them free land. Many came. Most of these "late Loyalists", as they were called, proved excellent settlers. Some, however, were attracted more by the free land than by the prospect of living under the British flag. When war came later between Canada and the United States, some of these newcomers hoped that Canada would become a part of the United States.

HE BUILDS ROADS

If Upper Canada was to attract settlers, it must have roads. In 1792 Simcoe set the Queen's Rangers to work building a road from York north to Lake Simcoe. This road was called Yonge Street after Sir George Yonge, Secretary of State for War and the Colonies in Great Britain. Yonge Street, Toronto, starts at the harbour, extends through the city as its chief business street, and continues north for miles to Lake Simcoe. Then Simcoe planned a road which was to extend from Kingston through York and London to Detroit. He was able to complete only the part now known as the Dundas Road which ran from the head of Lake Ontario to London.

A LOYALIST PROVINCE

Simcoe was firmly convinced that British ways were the best in the world and he did everything in his power to make Upper Canada as much like England as possible. He believed that there should be hereditary titles, as in Britain, and that the privileged class of titled men should manage the affairs of the province. The Loyalists, who had sacrificed so much because they had fought on Britain's side



during the American Revolution, supported him in his attempt to make Upper Canada a copy of England. Most of the men who attained distinction in Upper Canada in its early days were of Loyalist families. Their loyalty to Great Britain and their courage and determination became very important to the safety of Canada when the time came to defend their province against invasion.

SIMCOE'S CONTRIBUTION TO UPPER CANADA

Since Simcoe remained in Canada only five years, he was not able to complete all his plans. His successors were neither as wise nor as energetic as he had been. It was a long time before some of his ideas were put into practice. The university he planned to establish did not open its doors until half a century after he came to Canada.

John Graves Simcoe may truly be called the father of Upper Canada. It was Simcoe who laid wisely and well the foundations of the great province of Ontario, the province with the largest population and the greatest wealth of all the provinces of Canada. His strong sense of duty, his willingness to work for his country, his honesty, and his patriotism left the people of Upper Canada an example which is still an inspiration.

30. The Americans Set Up a Government

"A slow develop'd strength awaits
    Completion in a painful school;
    Phantoms of other forms of rule,
New majesties of mighty States."
ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON: *Love Thou Thy Land*

After the War of Independence the Americans faced many problems. They had thrown off government by Britain and now had to work out a system of governing themselves. One thing was certain: they did not want a king. They wanted to set up a good government which would prove to the world that they could get along without kings or dictators or armies to enforce the law. They wanted a democratic system, that is, one in which the people elect their representatives to make the law and administer it and interpret it. But it was not easy to determine just how to set up this kind of government.

Should there be thirteen separate nations or one larger one? Who was to have the power to settle disputes between the states? Might these disputes lead to war? Who was to look after the relations between the new nation and other nations? How were they going to raise money to run the government? They called themselves the United States of America but really there were thirteen independent states, often jealous of each other, each with its own laws and pattern of government.

In 1781, when the worst of the fighting was over, the states signed an agreement, known as the Articles of Confederation, which set up a central government to look after matters which were of common interest to all the states. This central government had the power to wage war and make peace, to organize the army and navy, and to manage the relations of the United States with other nations. It did not, however, have any power to tax the states or the citizens but had to depend on contributions each state might decide to make to the treasury. As few people realized the cost of maintaining a government and an army and navy, the states were reluctant to hand over a lot of money.

The central government had no power to regulate trade between the states. Since some states imposed duties on goods coming from other states, trade was made very difficult. The Americans had a tradition of smuggling when they were under British rule and there was no reason to suppose that they would change their ways. There were disputes between states about their boundaries. Some of the states did not abide by the terms of the treaty in regard to the treatment of the people who had fought on Britain's side, and the central government had no power to make them keep their promises.

THE PHILADELPHIA CONVENTION

Until 1787 the Americans carried on according to the Articles of Confederation but it was clear to every thinking person that they were not satisfactory. Delegates met at a National Convention in Philadelphia in 1787 to amend the Articles. They soon realized, however, that they needed a new constitution which would clearly establish how the United States would be governed. The Convention met nearly every day from May 25 to September 17, and the delegates worked hard to come to an agreement.

George Washington was elected president of the Convention. Most of the delegates realized that, if their country was ever to become strong and prosperous, the central government must be given more power than it had under the Articles of Confederation. Yet, because they had just fought a war against a king and a strong government which they thought unjust, they did not want to set up a new government which might be equally unjust to the individual states.

DRAWING UP A CONSTITUTION

James Madison of Virginia is often called the "Father of the Constitution". He had always been interested in the study of history and government. He found out all he could about how other countries were governed in order that the Americans could adopt the good ideas and avoid the bad ones. Most countries develop their political systems slowly, changing through the centuries as the rulers and their people desire change, and by peaceful means make new laws to meet the needs of new times. When a government becomes tyrannical, however, the people may force change by rebellion. This is what the Americans had done, and now they were free to set up a new system without any of the faults of others, if they could only decide just how to do it!

Before he went to the Convention Madison drew up a plan. He talked to some of his friends about it and wrote to others, so that many were prepared to support him. The Convention, of course, made many changes and additions and even when the Constitution was finally drawn up the delegates were still not completely satisfied. The majority voted to accept it, however, so it was accepted by all.

The next problem was whether the people of each state would approve. Each state elected delegates to a convention to study the Constitution and decide whether their state would accept it. Voting in those days was not as it is to-day in Canada or the United States. In some states only men who owned considerable property had the right to vote; in others, only those who belonged to a certain religious denomination. We cannot, therefore, be certain that the decisions made truly represented all the people. There were long and bitter arguments but, after many hours of discussion, all the states voted to accept the Constitution.

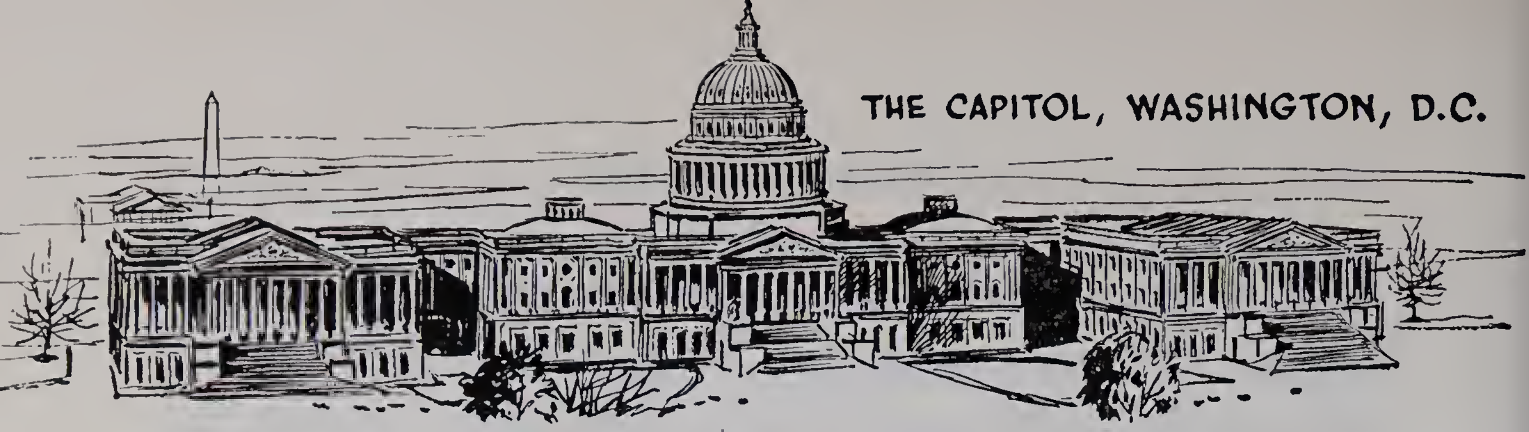
Washington listens thoughtfully as Madison offers his plan to the Convention.

In the state conventions there were many people who thought that the Constitution left too much power in the hands of the central government. They wanted certain and permanent safeguards to the liberty of the people and the rights of each state; for example, freedom of speech, freedom of the press, freedom to hold meetings, the right to trial by jury. A list of their demands was drawn up and added to the Constitution in the form of ten amendments. These first ten amendments are called the Bill of Rights, because they assured the citizens of the United States that their rights would be respected. Other amendments to the Constitution have been passed in the years since 1787 but there have been no basic changes since the days of the Philadelphia Convention.

A GOVERNMENT FOR THE NEW NATION

In every government there are three departments: to pass laws, to carry out the laws that have been passed, and to interpret the laws in case of dispute. *Legislative* means lawmaking; *executive* means having power to act; *judicial* means having power to judge. The Americans wanted these three departments kept separate.

The legislative branch of the government is entrusted to Congress, which consists of two houses, the House of Representatives and the Senate. Each state elects members to the House of Representatives in proportion to its population; thus, in 1958 New York sent forty-three members while little Delaware sent only one. Each state also elects two people to the Senate so that here all states, regardless of size, have equal voice. Congress makes laws concerning the nation as a whole, on such matters as tariffs on goods coming into the country, taxes, national defence and war.



THE CAPITOL, WASHINGTON, D.C.

Before a bill can become law it must be passed by both the House of Representatives and the Senate and signed by the President.

The executive branch of the government is entrusted to the President, who is elected to office every four years. He chooses men to help him, who make up his Cabinet. In Canada the Prime Minister's Cabinet is chosen from the House of Commons and from the Senate and its members are responsible for their actions to Parliament; in the United States the President chooses his Cabinet from outside Congress and its members are responsible only to him. The President has great power. He is commander-in-chief of the army and has the power to appoint ambassadors, national judges, and to make treaties with the approval of the Senate. He is responsible for seeing that the laws are obeyed. The President may veto a law that has been passed by Congress but if Congress passes the law again by a two-thirds majority it becomes law without his consent.

The judicial or law-interpreting branch of government is entrusted to the Supreme Court and to the national district and circuit courts. The judges of these courts are appointed by the President with the approval of the Senate.

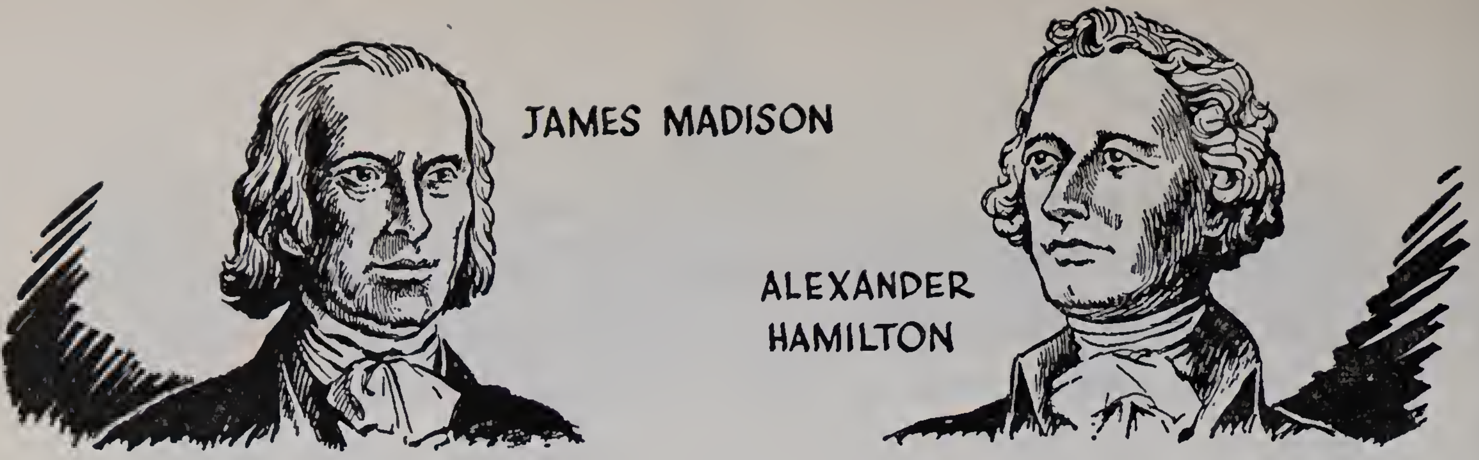
GEORGE WASHINGTON, THE FIRST PRESIDENT

George Washington, who had served as commander-in-chief of the army and as president of the Philadelphia Convention, became the first President. He did not want to be President. He would rather have lived quietly on his farm at Mount Vernon, but when people pointed out to him that his country needed him he consented to let his name stand. When it was known that he was willing to take the office, no one else would run against him. John Adams of Massachusetts, who had helped Thomas Jefferson draw up the Declaration of Independence, became the first vice-president. He later became the second President. Washington chose four able men to help him. He appointed Thomas Jefferson to look after relations with other countries. Alexander Hamilton was assigned the responsibility of looking after the financial affairs of the government. Edward Randolph of Virginia became Attorney General, responsible for enforcing the law, and General Henry Knox of Massachusetts became Secretary of War. These four men made up Washington's Cabinet. Presidents to-day have many more members in their Cabinets, because the country has grown so much larger and there are many more jobs to be done.

Washington was a good President. He established order at home, and showed the world that the United States could govern itself wisely. When France asked the Americans to help them in a war against Britain, Washington urged the people of the United States to take no part in the war. He established a policy of keeping out of foreign wars which the United States followed for a long time.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON

Alexander Hamilton, a very clever business man,was determined that the new government should pay the debts of the old as well as its own expenses, in order to show the world that it was honest and reliable. People wondered where he could get the money, but he had an idea. He said that when people trusted a government they would



lend it money, so he decided to borrow from the people. When we buy government bonds we lend money to our government and it pays us back with interest. Hamilton was right. Since people believed that the government would pay its debts they were willing to lend it money.

TWO PARTIES

Two political parties developed, the Federalist and the Republican. The Federalists were later called Whigs, and still later became the nucleus of the present Republican party. The anti-Federalist party was first called the Republican, then the Democratic-Republican party and today it has become the Democratic party.

The Federalist party, which included George Washington, Alexander Hamilton, John Adams and James Madison, believed in a strong central government. Hamilton, one of the most capable men in the group, believed that government should always be in the hands of the well educated and wealthy. "All communities," he wrote, "divide themselves into the few and the many. The first are the well-born and the rich, the other, the mass of the people who seldom determine right." Washington and Adams also believed that the citizens must be willing to sacrifice some of their freedoms to create a strong nation. This is true. We do have to give the government power to make us obey the laws, pay taxes, serve in war-time. But the question always is, how much of our freedom must we, or should we, sacrifice? In totalitarian states like Hitler's

Germany or present-day Russia, the government has almost limitless power; many people are willing that this be so, provided it makes their country strong and prosperous. In Canada and the United States, however, the people are not willing to give up so much personal freedom.

The Republican party was led by Thomas Jefferson. He disagreed with Hamilton about keeping power in the hands of the wealthy. In the Declaration of Independence he had written that "all men are created equal". He believed that the purpose of the Revolution had been to free men from a tyrannical government. Now, he argued, the Federalists were using the Constitution to enforce a new tyranny over the common people of America. He feared that the wealth of the business men would enable them to use the national government for their own interests. Really free government, he thought, would best be safeguarded by a nation of independent farmers. The planters of the south, the small farmers of the north and west, and many of the working people of the towns agreed with Jefferson.

While the Federalists were in power, from 1789 to 1801, they tried very hard to make the country prosperous and the central government powerful. During the war both the central and state governments had borrowed money for which they had given bonds. When the war ended the central government did not have the money to pay off these bonds and the states delayed in paying off theirs. But many of the poorer people needed money immediately so they sold their bonds to wealthy men at prices far below their value. In time the government redeemed these bonds at full price. This, of course, pleased the business men who had bought them, but it angered the poorer people who had had to sell at a loss.

The government had to levy high taxes in order to pay off the bonds and to pay their general expenses. This caused a great deal of discontent. As early as 1786 there was a rebellion in Massachusetts led by Daniel Shay, who had been an officer in Washington's army. The rebels were protesting against the high taxes which were being levied to pay off the bonds and the high salaries being paid to public officials. The rebellion was put down but it helped to make many people believe that there must not be too strong a central government. Later, in 1794, some of the people in western Pennsylvania resented the high taxes so much that they rose in a rebellion, known as the Whisky Rebellion. Washington sent an army of fifteen thousand men to subdue the rebels and the uprising was put down without bloodshed.

Finally, in 1798, the government passed the Alien and Sedition Acts which set aside the Bill of Rights and permitted the denial of freedom of speech, freedom of the press and freedom of assembly to petition the government for redress of grievances. Many people began to think they were no better off than they had been under Britain.

In the election of 1801, the Federalists were defeated, and Thomas Jefferson became President.

For Further Study

1. Imagine you are one of Pontiac's supporters. Prepare a speech to persuade a tribe of Indians to join in the revolt.
2. Make a mural depicting the capture of Michilimackinac.
3. Dramatize a scene in a tavern in Massachusetts in which the colonists discuss their grievances after the Stamp Tax is imposed. You should have at least one speaker who defends the right of the British to impose the tax.
4. Make a mural depicting the Boston Tea Party.
5. One member of the class might read Longfellow's poem "Paul Revere's Ride" to the class.

6. Dramatize a scene in a family where the father and one son take the side of the British and two sons decide to join Washington's army.

7. Imagine you are a soldier in Washington's army at Valley Forge. Write a letter to your family describing your life there.

8. The Loyalists were "displaced persons". In what ways were their experiences like those of displaced persons from Europe today? In what ways were they different?

9. Make a mural of the story of the Loyalists. Show them arriving by ship, ox-cart, or on foot; drawing lots for their land; clearing a place for their cabins; receiving their government grant of tools, seed, and livestock. Show them five years later with a cabin built and some land cleared. In one panel you might show the tools and implements the farmer used; in another, the spinning-wheels, looms, candle moulds, long-handled pans, and out-door ovens the women used.

10. Find out, if you can, how these early settlers made soap, dye, brooms, glue, furniture, candles, blankets and clothing.

11. Establishing homes in the backwoods would have been almost impossible without the stumping, barn-raising, and other bees. Give your reasons for agreeing or disagreeing with this statement.

12. What preparations would a pioneer housewife make for a barn-raising-bee?

13. A stamp commemorating the Loyalists was issued in 1934. Add it to your collection.

14. Find out what you can about your own community. When did the first settlers come? Are any of their descendants still living there? When was the first school built? the first church built? the first newspaper established? When did the railway come to your community? Have any battles been fought near your home?

15. On a modern road map mark the roads which Simcoe planned and built.

16. Dramatize a scene in which some of the leaders of the Americans discuss how much power should be given to the central government and how much should be left for the government of each state.

VII. *Unrolling the Map to the North and West*

31. Hudson's Bay Men Go Inland

"And names of all great men who came and went
And traced out all the frontiers of this land,
Heroes of dauntless heart, a fever in the blood
To seek new worlds and wander till they reached
    the farthest west."

O. J. Stevenson: *Pathfinders*

The Hudson's Bay Company hoped to carry on trade from the forts on Hudson Bay. Most of the men who came to the Bay in the service of the Company were sailors. They were willing to risk their lives on stormy seas, but few of them cared to venture out of sight of the fort. They were not prepared to encounter the wild animals, the unfriendly Indians, or the unknown demons that might live inland. As far as they were concerned, the Indians were savages to be traded with, if and when they brought their furs to the forts on the Bay.

There were, however, three men in the service of the Company in its early days who dared to make their way inland. They were Henry Kelsey, who went south-west from York Factory to the country of the Assiniboine

Indians; Anthony Henday, who travelled west beyond the Red Deer River into the country of the Blackfoot Indians; and Samuel Hearne, who ventured north to the mouth of the Coppermine River.

Kelsey and Henday made their expeditions to urge the Indians to bring their furs to the forts. Hearne was seeking the copper which, according to the Indians, was to be found in the north.

KELSEY SEES THE BUFFALO

In 1684 a little sailing vessel named the *Happy Return* set out from England for York Factory on Hudson Bay. Two men who are now famous in the history of Canada were on board. One was Pierre Radisson, who had made many trips to the Bay. The other was a fourteen-year-old apprentice, Henry Kelsey.

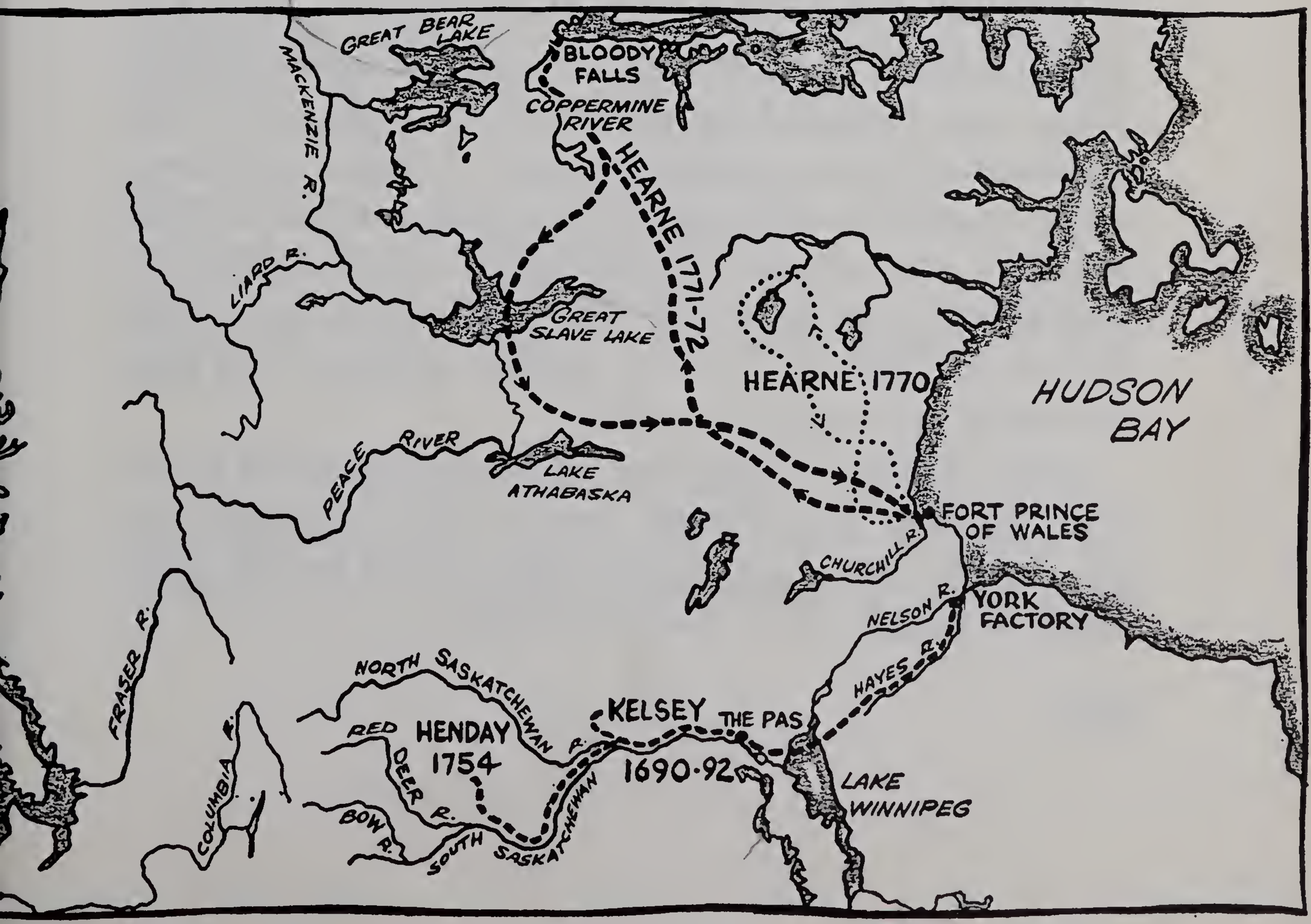
Kelsey had signed on as an apprentice for four years, at the end of which time he was to receive in payment for his services £8 and two new suits of clothing. During his years as an apprentice he was to do whatever work the governor of the fort commanded.

The rules at the Hudson's Bay Company fort were strict. Only the governor and the chief trader were allowed to trade with the Indians, and apprentices were forbidden to make friends with them. They were forbidden to go outside the fort without permission. Since Kelsey was an active, energetic boy who found life in the fort too dull for him, he used to slip out through the gate and wander over the country-side. He made friends with the Indians and learned to speak their language.

When the governor wanted to send some letters to the governor at Fort Severn, two hundred miles along the coast, he first entrusted them to four Indians who returned without having delivered the letters. Then the governor, knowing that Kelsey was eager for adventure and that he was friendly with the Indians, sent Kelsey and an Indian boy, Thomas Savage, on this errand. At that time Kelsey was only seventeen years old. Within a month Kelsey and the Indian boy were back at York Factory with an answer to the letters.

The governors of the Company in England were pleased when they learned about this journey of Kelsey's. They wrote to the factor, suggesting that "the boy, Henry Kelsey, be sent to Churchill River with Thomas Savage because we are informed he is a very active lad delighting much in Indian company, being never better pleased than when he is travelling with them."

A few years later, in 1690, Kelsey was sent inland to the country of the Assiniboine Indians. He paddled up the Hayes River and travelled through parts of what we now know as Manitoba and Saskatchewan. Most explorers keep journals of their expeditions. They describe the country through which they travel, tell about the people



they see, their manners and customs, and sometimes they tell about the plants and animals. If they have surveying instruments they estimate their position. Often the early explorers knew much less about spelling and punctuation than they did about exploring and as a result some of their journals are very hard to read and understand.

Kelsey wrote part of his journal in rhyme. It begins:

> "In sixteen hundred and ninety'th year
> I set forth as plainly may appear."

Kelsey stayed for a time at a place which he called Deering's Point. In his journal he wrote:

> "At Deering's Point after the frost
> I set up there a certain cross."

No one knows for certain just where Deering's Point was. Historians have read the journal very carefully to try to find out. Many people believe it was where the city of The Pas now stands. If we could find the cross Kelsey set up we would know. But probably it fell down many years ago and has long since rotted away.

Two years after he set out, Henry Kelsey returned to York Factory. In all this time he had not seen another white man. He had lived alone with the Indians. He had feasted with them, smoked the pipe of peace with them, made speeches to them, given them presents and received in return gifts of furs. He had tried to persuade them to stop fighting with each other. He urged them to bring their furs to the forts on the Bay, and he promised that they would get good things in return.

Henry Kelsey was the first white man to travel in the Saskatchewan River district and to visit the Indians on the prairies. He was the first white man to see the great herds of buffalo on our northern plains.

La Vérendrye and the French traders and explorers who came after him had built trading-posts on the Red, the Assiniboine, and the Saskatchewan rivers. The Indians of the western plains found it much easier to take their furs to the French posts on the rivers than to take them all the way to Hudson Bay. The Hudson's Bay Company realized that something must be done to protect their trade.

Anthony Henday set out from York Factory in 1754 with instructions "to explore the country inland and to endeavour to increase the Hudson's Bay Company's trade". When he came to the present site of The Pas on the Saskatchewan River he found that rival traders from Montreal had built a post there a few years earlier. In his journal, Henday told about this first encounter with the French traders.

"On my arrival," he wrote, "two Frenchmen came out when followed a great deal of bowing and scraping between us, and then we entered their fort, or more properly a hog sty for in short it is no better. They have neither victuals nor drink. . . . They are very lazy, not one stick of wood anigh their house. They asked me where the letter was. I told them I had no letter nor did not see any reason for one but that the country belonged to us as much as them. He made answer that it did not and that he would detain me there and send me home to France. I told him I knew France as well as he did, and was not afraid to go there more than himself, which made Monsieur a little cooler."

As he travelled across the prairies, Henday tried to persuade the Indians to bring their furs to the Company's posts on the Bay. Over and over again the Indians told

Henday watches the Blackfoot Indians hunting buffalo on the Prairies.

him that it was easier to trade with the French who were near at hand than it was to undertake the long journey to the Bay.

Henday and his party spent the winter among the Blackfoot Indians, probably somewhere between the Red Deer River and the north branch of the Saskatchewan. These Indians rode horses, and hunted the buffalo very successfully with bows and arrows.

When Henday tried to convince the chief that his people should take furs to the Bay and trade them for the guns and other fine goods the Company had to offer, the chief said that his people could kill all the buffalo they needed with bows and arrows. They did not need fire-arms. He added that they were horsemen, not canoe men, and that they saw no advantage in making the long journey to the Bay. He also said that he had heard that "the tribes who frequented the settlements were sometimes starved on their journey."

Within the year Henday returned to York Factory and gave an account of his trip to his superior officers. He said that if they wanted to keep the trade with the Indians on the plains they would have to establish posts there. He reported that the French were powerful rivals. "They have the advantage of us in every shape," he wrote, "and if they had Brazile tobacco, which they have not, would entirely cut off our trade." But the officials of the Hudson's Bay Company paid no attention to Henday's report.

SAMUEL HEARNE AND THE FAR-OFF METAL RIVER

The Indians who visited Fort Prince of Wales told the traders about a mountain of copper on the Far-Off Metal River which flowed to the north. They told such a good story that the factor at once wanted to send someone to find this rich treasure.

Samuel Hearne was chosen for the job. He was instructed to make a note of the position of any copper deposits, to prepare the way for trade with the Indians in the country through which he travelled, and to try to discover if there was a passage by water through the continent to the ocean of the West, the long-sought North-West Passage from Hudson Bay.

One day in November, 1769, with two white companions and six Indian guides, Samuel Hearne set out. The factor and all the men at the fort gathered to see the adventurers away, and honoured them with a salute of seven guns.

Before long Hearne began to realize that the Indians had no intention of guiding him to the Far-Off Metal River. After the explorers had travelled about two hundred miles west of the Bay, the Indians deserted them, laughing as they made off with most of the supplies. In the winter cold, Hearne and his companions were left far from home with little food, without guides. Half-frozen, hungry, and disappointed, they struggled back to the fort.

Hearne was a man of courage. It was not long before he started out once more. This time he took with him only five Indian guides, having decided that the Englishmen had been too much trouble. This time there was no salute of seven guns, because the cannons on the ramparts were covered with snow. But the men at the fort gave Hearne and his guides three cheers to speed them on their way.

The explorers went west a short distance, then north. As spring came and the snow melted they had to abandon their snowshoes and sledges. They had to carry all their equipment on their backs. At times they ran out of food. They saw no caribou, no wild fowl that they could kill. For four days at one time and for seven at another they found nothing to eat. Hearne smoked his pipe to comfort him for lack of food, while the Indians chewed bits of their moccasins or any part of their deerskin clothing they could spare.

Later Hearne bought a canoe from an Indian in exchange for a knife which had cost only a penny in England. It may seem as if Hearne cheated the Indian but that is not so. The knife which cost only a penny in England was a very rare thing in those northern lands. Probably this Indian had never seen a knife with such a good blade. Everyone in his tribe would envy him his bargain.

One day when the party had been away nearly six months, an accident upset all Hearne's plans. He had a

Hearne traded a knife for a canoe.

quadrant, an instrument with which he took observations as to his location. While he was eating his dinner that day, he left the quadrant standing on a nearby rock. A sharp gust of wind dashed it to the ground and it was broken. It was no use trying to go on. Once again the party had to give up its hopes of reaching the Far-off Metal River. Once again Hearne turned back toward Fort Prince of Wales.

Hearne and his men were almost exhausted when they had the good fortune to meet Chief Matonabbee, an Indian who had visited the Bay. He gave Hearne food and warm deerskins, and travelled back to Fort Prince of Wales with him. They reached the fort on November 25th, 1770. Hearne had been away for nine months, but he had not found the Far-Off Metal River.

He wanted to try a third time. His good friend, Chief Matonabbee, said he would be his guide. In less than two weeks they set out. On their way they were joined by a large party of Matonabbee's tribe, including women and children. Matonabbee said that Hearne's previous failures had been because he had no women in his party. "Women," said the Indian chief, "are made for labour. One of them can carry or haul as much as two men can do; they pitch our tents, make or mend our clothing, and in fact there is no such thing as travelling in this country for any length of time without their assistance. Women, though they do everything, are maintained at trifling expense, for, as they always stand cooks, the very licking of their fingers in scarce times is sufficient for their subsistence."

As they went on their way other bands of Indians joined them, planning to attack their ancient enemies, the Eskimos. Hearne tried to persuade them that this was an exploring party, not a war-party, but he was not successful.

Hearne was worried when he realized that the Indians were planning to attack the Eskimos. He was afraid that all his hardships might have been in vain and that he might have to go back to the fort once more without having found the mountains of copper.

As he had been instructed to keep on good terms with the Indians, he did not dare argue too much.

Before long the travellers reached the river now known as the Coppermine. As they went down the river towards the village of the Eskimos, the Indians prepared for battle. At dawn they attacked the little village. The Eskimos were completely surprised and everyone was slaughtered. This spot on the Coppermine River is still known as Bloody Falls.

Hearne went eight miles farther down the river to its mouth. He built a pile of stones to show that he had been there, and took possession of the country in the name of the Hudson's Bay Company.

So far no trace of the mountains of copper had been seen. As the party made its way up the river, the Indians took Hearne to the place where they had said one could pick up copper as easily as pebbles at Churchill. But they found only a few splinters of copper and one larger piece weighing about four pounds. Over two and a half years after he had first set out to find the Far-Off Metal River, Hearne returned to Fort Prince of Wales, carrying this one piece of copper. The Hudson's Bay Company gave it to the British Museum, where it can be seen to-day.

There is copper in that country, east of Great Bear Lake. We know that to-day. It would be mined if it were not so far from railways, or if ships could go in there more easily, or if there were a great demand for copper. The men who sent Hearne out had dreamed of great masses of copper, near the sea, where a post could be established. They had dreamed of ships sailing to England with their holds filled with rich copper ore. This dream vanished when Hearne made his report.

What Hearne had proved by his expeditions is important. He had proved that land extended far to the north of the mouth of the Churchill River. He had found that much of this country was a frozen waste. He had stood upon the barren shores of the Arctic. He made it clear that a man of courage and endurance could travel through those barren lands, live off the country, and return to tell the tale. He ended his journal by saying that his journey "had put an end to all disputes concerning a North-West Passage through Hudson Bay."

There was no mountain of copper. Hearne wrote in his journal that he found "nothing but a jumble of rocks and gravel". After four hours of searching he found one piece of ore and a few splinters.

32. Sailors of the West Coast

> "For we are bound where mariner has not yet dared to go
> And we will risk the ship, ourselves and all."
>
> Walt Whitman: *Passage to India*

RUSSIANS ON THE PACIFIC COAST OF NORTH AMERICA

Peter the Great of Russia thought that his country should have a share in the new lands. France and England controlled the eastern part of North America, Spain and Portugal claimed Central and South America. Peter decided that Russia should explore the northern Pacific in the hope of finding Gama Land, a country which the map-makers believed was to be found in the Pacific between Asia and America.

In 1725 Peter chose a Dane, Vitus Bering, to head the exploration. It was an enormous undertaking. First the explorers had to go from St. Petersburg (now Leningrad) six thousand miles across Russia and Siberia to Kamchatka on the Pacific coast. Their journey took them over trackless deserts, across deep rivers, over high mountains. Sometimes they had to stop to build rafts to carry them across the great rivers. It took them three years to reach Kamchatka. There they built ships and sailed out into the Pacific. They went far enough north to discover that America and Asia are separated by a strait, to-day called Bering Strait.

On a second expedition Bering was accompanied by a large party of botanists, artists, and learned men who were to report on their findings in the new land. When they reached Kamchatka, they built a fort and then they built two ships for the voyage—the *St. Peter* and the *St. Paul.* Bering was in charge of the *St. Peter*, and his lieutenant Chirikoff was in charge of the *St. Paul.* Not long after they set out, the two ships were separated in a storm.

The scientists had come a long distance to study new lands. They insisted on landing and studying the rocks and mosses. Bering could not convince them that they were risking the lives of the whole party and that they must start at once for home.

Neither of them found Gama Land, for the good reason that it does not exist.

Chirikoff's ship sailed along the coast north of the 55th parallel of north latitude and returned home to Kamchatka in safety. Bering, against his own wishes but at the command of the scientists, wasted time waiting for Chirikoff. Then he sailed south to look for Gama Land. When provisions and water were low he turned north. Bering himself and many of the crew were mortally ill from scurvy when at last they sighted land near Mt. St. Elias. The scientists landed and began to explore. The commander was worried, for he knew they were far from home, almost out of provisions, and in a dangerous place He insisted on starting for home.

The *St. Peter* followed the shore-line, and then the Aleutian Islands, which are strung out from Alaska towards Asia. Bering urged his companions to press for home, but they voted to land on a small island, known to-day as Bering Island. Fortunately there was enough animal life on the island to provide them with plenty of food and warm clothing. Since there was no timber for building shelters, the adventurers had to live in pits, the walls of which they lined with deep layers of moss to keep them warm during the long cold winter. Thirty-one of the party, including Bering himself, died before that winter was over.

During a gale, the *St. Peter* was driven on shore and wrecked. In the spring of 1742, the survivors built a raft and rigged up oars and a sail of skins. To cross the stormy Pacific on a raft was a bold and hazardous venture, but at last they succeeded in finding their way back to Kamchatka.

Chinese merchants happened to be at Kamchatka at that time to buy furs. They offered high prices for the otter skins the Russians were wearing. When the Russians learned that the furs were of great value, they realized that even though they had not found Gama Land they had found something worth while, a source of great new wealth.

When the *St. Peter* was wrecked, the Russians found themselves in a difficult situation. What hope had they of ever seeing their homes again?

The Russians forced the Aleuts to go out in their tiny kayaks to hunt the sea-otter, regardless of stormy seas. Many of the hunters did not return to shore.

Traders from Russia began to make many voyages from Kamchatka to the Aleutian Islands and to the coast of Alaska. These traders treated the natives very cruelly. They bribed and bullied the Aleuts to do their hunting for them, forcing the unfortunate natives to go out in their little kayaks to spear the sea-otter no matter how stormy the seas. It was dangerous work. Thousands of the Aleuts perished, either in the hunt, or in fights with the Russians. The traders used to say, "God is in Heaven and the Czar is far away."

But the Czar was not so far away. He heard about the crimes that the traders had committed, and he decided that no one should be allowed to trade with the natives without a licence. A governor was sent to see that justice was done.

The Russians controlled Alaska and the Aleutian Islands until they sold them to the United States in 1867 for $7,000,000. The history of British Columbia, and indeed the whole of Canada, might have been different had the Russians remained in Alaska, or if Alaska had been bought by the British Government instead of by the Americans.

Two hundred thousand sea-otters were taken by the Russians in half a century. The traders made a quick fortune, but they were too greedy for profits. Sea-otters soon became scarce and to-day there are only a few where once there were thousands.

Other animals would have disappeared in the same way if laws had not been passed to protect them. Trappers and hunters are now allowed to kill only a certain number of beaver, or deer, or moose each year. There is only a short season each year in which hunters are allowed to shoot wild ducks and geese, and prairie-chickens. This protection of the wild life we call "conservation". That means that we are trying to save, or conserve, our natural resources so that Canada will continue to have game for the hunters of the future.

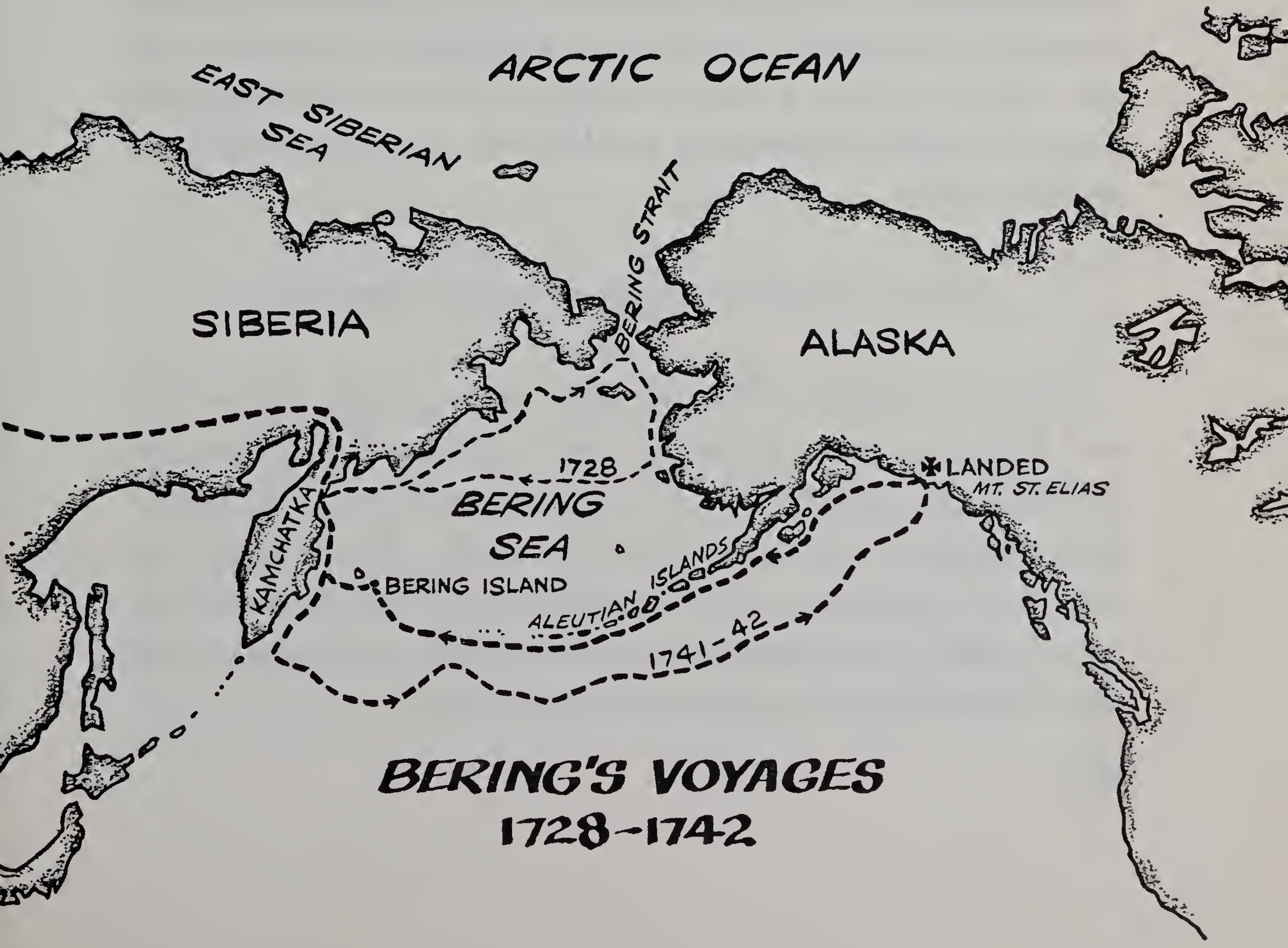
NEW INTEREST IN THE SEARCH FOR THE NORTH-WEST PASSAGE

Bering had proved that the Gama Land, the great land between Asia and America, which geographers had marked on their maps, did not exist. He had also shown that there was a strait between Asia and America. News of Bering Strait revived the search for the North-West Passage.

We know to-day that there is a North-West Passage. It is possible to go by ship north of this continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Roald Amundsen, a bold Norwegian explorer, made his way through in a three-year voyage, 1903-1906. In 1940-1942, a party of Royal Canadian Mounted Police, under the command of Sergeant Henry Larsen, took the schooner *St. Roch* through from the Pacific to the Atlantic. It is possible to make this passage, but icebergs and ice-fields make the journey slow and dangerous. As a trade route, the long-sought North-West Passage is useless. Within the last century transcontinental railways, airways, and the Panama Canal have provided satisfactory means of carrying goods and passengers from the Atlantic to the Pacific.

But in the eighteenth century railways and airplanes had not been invented. No one dreamed of such a great engineering feat as the building of a canal to connect the two oceans. The search for the North-West Passage, the water route to the Pacific, was the dream which had beckoned Frobisher, Davis, Hudson, Cartier, Champlain, Nicolet, La Vérendrye, and Hearne.

There were people in England who demanded that the Hudson's Bay Company should find a North-West Passage or give up its charter. Parliament offered a reward of £20,000 to anyone who discovered a northern route to the Pacific. Explorers had tried to find the passage in expeditions from the east by land and by sea. The British Government sent Captain James Cook out to try to discover it from the west.



BERING'S VOYAGES
1728-1742

A Greek pilot, named Juan de Fuca, who had sailed with the Spanish, had told of a strait leading from the Pacific to the Arctic through a great tree-covered land. Cook was told to seek this strait. There is a strait named after the Greek pilot, but it does not connect the Pacific and the Arctic. It is the strait which separates the southern end of Vancouver Island from the mainland.

Cook sailed from England in 1776. Two years later he sighted a cape, at the entrance of the Strait of Juan de Fuca. He named it Cape Flattery. Unfortunately he was driven off shore by a gale and did not see the opening of the strait. He sailed up the west coast of Vancouver Island and landed at Nootka, where he found the Indians friendly and willing to trade. He sailed up past the Queen Charlotte Islands and along the coast, exploring many inlets and bays but finding no passage to Hudson Bay. A wall of ice stopped him when he tried to pass through Bering Strait. He visited the Aleutian Islands where he found the Russians carrying on a thriving fur trade. On his return voyage, Cook was killed by the natives of the Sandwich Islands who did not like the way the white men treated them.

SPAIN ATTEMPTS TO CLAIM MORE TERRITORY

Spain considered that, by right of her early discoveries and her possession of Mexico and southern California, the Southern Pacific should be under Spanish control. Russia had established claims in the far north. Were these two nations to divide the rich territory of the Pacific coast between them? Explorers came from England, Canada, and the United States to put in their claims.

Soon the Spaniards and the English came into conflict. Spanish explorers claimed Vancouver Island, but two English traders had established a fort at Nootka on the west coast of the island in 1778. While the English traders were away, Spaniards sailed into the Nootka harbour, tore down the Englishmen's fort and built one of their own.

England would not submit to Spain's destruction of the forts her captains had established. England had been mistress of the seas since the defeat of the Spanish Armada and would accept no insults, especially from Spain. For a time it looked as if there might be war, but it was decided that the Spaniards should restore the land and the fort and pay for the damage.

CAPTAIN VANCOUVER

An expedition under Captain George Vancouver was sent out from England to receive the surrender of the property from Spain. He was also instructed to make maps of the coast from California to the Russian possessions at Sitka.

In 1792 Vancouver sailed up the west coast. A gale drove him off shore, and as a result he missed discovering the mouth of the Columbia River. He was sailing through the Strait of Juan de Fuca when he met an American ship, the *Columbia*, commanded by Captain Robert Gray. Gray announced that he had discovered the Great River to the West, and had named it the Columbia after his ship.

Vancouver sailed between Vancouver Island and the mainland, but he missed the mouth of the Fraser because of thick fog. He sailed round Vancouver Island and met the Spanish representatives at Nootka. One of his lieutenants travelled some distance up the Columbia River.

American and English explorers meet off the coast of western Canada.

Captain Vancouver himself sailed north along the coast, but he found no passage from the Pacific to the Arctic.

Captain Vancouver did not win the £20,000 which the British Government had offered, but his name is remembered. Vancouver Island and the busy city of Vancouver both bear his name.

33. The Lords of the Lakes and the Forests

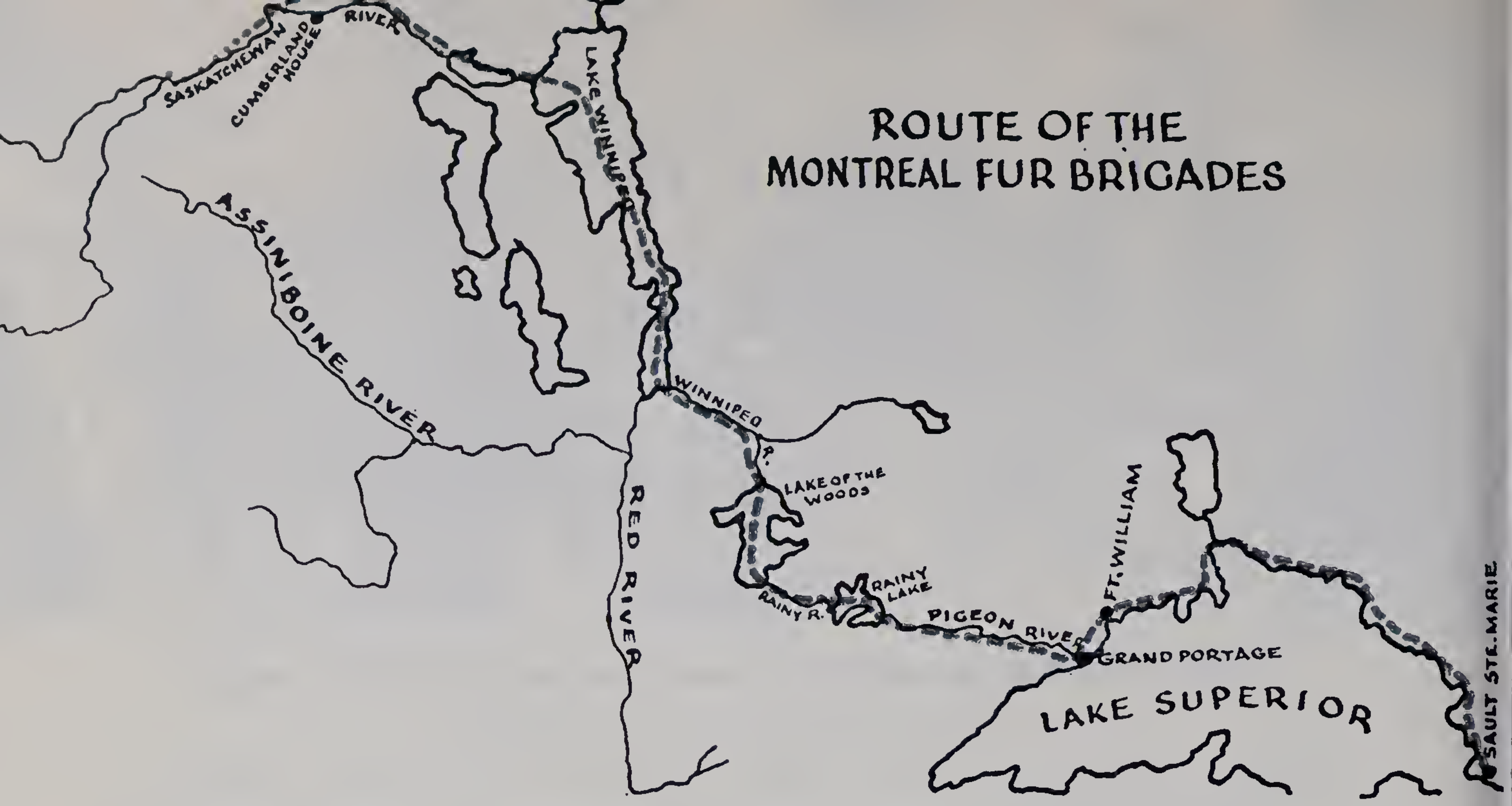
> "Northwesters, Company men, Free-traders, X.Y.'s,
> McTavishes, MacKenzies, McDonalds, and McGillivrays
> With packets of blanket cloth, duffel, and spirit dregs,
> Steel knives, flint-locks, bears' grease, and powder kegs."
>
> AUTHOR UNKNOWN

Both the French and the British knew about the good furs of the North and West, but few traders had ventured west of the Great Lakes until after the Seven Years War. La Vérendrye and his sons and their successors had, it is true, built several trading-posts but they had not had time to build up a profitable trade before war interrupted their efforts. The Hudson's Bay Company, as we have seen, had been content to build trading-posts on the Bay and wait for the Indians to come to them. In the first century of the existence of the Company, only Kelsey and Henday had ventured inland to extend the fur trade, and only Henday had met any French traders competing with the English. No one realized what great areas of fertile land on the western plains waited for settlers. Neither nation had sent explorers west of the Rockies. Neither of them, at this time, had made any effort to establish colonies on the Pacific coast.

TRADERS FROM MONTREAL COME TO COMPETE WITH THE HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY

After Canada was ceded to Britain, merchants and adventurers came to Montreal hoping to make fortunes out of the fur trade. Then began a partnership between British business men with money to invest and French-Canadian traders and voyageurs. It was expensive to provide trade goods and canoes for an expedition. Sometimes one trader would send out goods worth $10,000 or more. The British traders could supply the money, but many of them needed to employ men who knew how to manage canoes, how to get along with the Indians, how to provide for themselves as they travelled. The voyageurs were experienced and skilful in these matters.

The British fur brigades followed the route the French traders had used, up the Ottawa, across to Lake Nipissing, down the French River to Georgian Bay. Some then went across to Michilimackinac and traded south and west of Lake Michigan. Some went on to Sault Ste. Marie, and beyond along the north shore of Lake Superior, and then by the Pigeon River, Rainy River, Rainy Lake, Lake of the Woods route to the swift-flowing Winnipeg River which carried them down to Lake Winnipeg. They found their way to where the Saskatchewan flows into Lake Winnipeg and followed the river up to the rich fur-trading country of the North. True, they were in territory that had been granted



to the Hudson's Bay Company, but the Company's traders had not troubled to go inland in search of furs. When traders were close at hand with blankets and guns, knives and kettles, beads and rum, the Indians saw no reason to make the long trip down to the Bay. Before long the Hudson's Bay Company found that fewer furs were being brought to their posts.

ALEXANDER HENRY

Some of the traders kept journals of their travels and adventures. One who did was Alexander Henry. When he was only twenty-one, he came to Canada during the siege of Quebec to sell goods to the British soldiers. After the fall of Quebec he went to Montreal. There he heard talk about the fur trade of the West. With the money he had made, he bought trade goods in Albany and joined the traders setting out for the West. When Pontiac's Indians played the famous game of lacrosse which resulted in the capture of Michilimackinac, Alexander Henry was in his room writing. "I saw a crowd of Indians," he wrote, "within the fort, furiously cutting down and scalping every Englishman they found." He escaped to an attic, and was later held prisoner by the Indians until a band of friendly Indians rescued him.

Alexander Henry's journals are one of our best sources of information about the fur trade in the West. He was partner in a trading-post at Sault Ste. Marie, from which he sent traders out to the North and West for furs. On his last trip into the West, in 1775, he went by way of Grand Portage to Lake Winnipeg and up the Saskatchewan River into the country of the prairie Indians. Furs were plentiful; trade was good; and after that trip he retired to live in comfort in Montreal.

RIVAL POSTS ON THE SASKATCHEWAN

In 1772 Thomas and Joseph Frobisher, two traders from Montreal, built a small log trading-post on the Saskatchewan River. There they were able to stop the Indians who were going down to Hudson Bay with their furs. At last the Hudson's Bay Company officials began to realize that they could not wait in their trading-posts on the Bay for the Indians to come to them. In 1774, Samuel Hearne was sent inland to establish a trading-post. He built Cumberland House a short distance away from the Frobisher's post.

The building of these two trading-posts began a half century of conflict between the traders from Hudson Bay and the traders from Montreal—a conflict in which blood was sometimes spilt. Once started on a building programme, the Hudson's Bay Company built a number of posts on the Saskatchewan, the Churchill, and the Assiniboine.

PETER POND

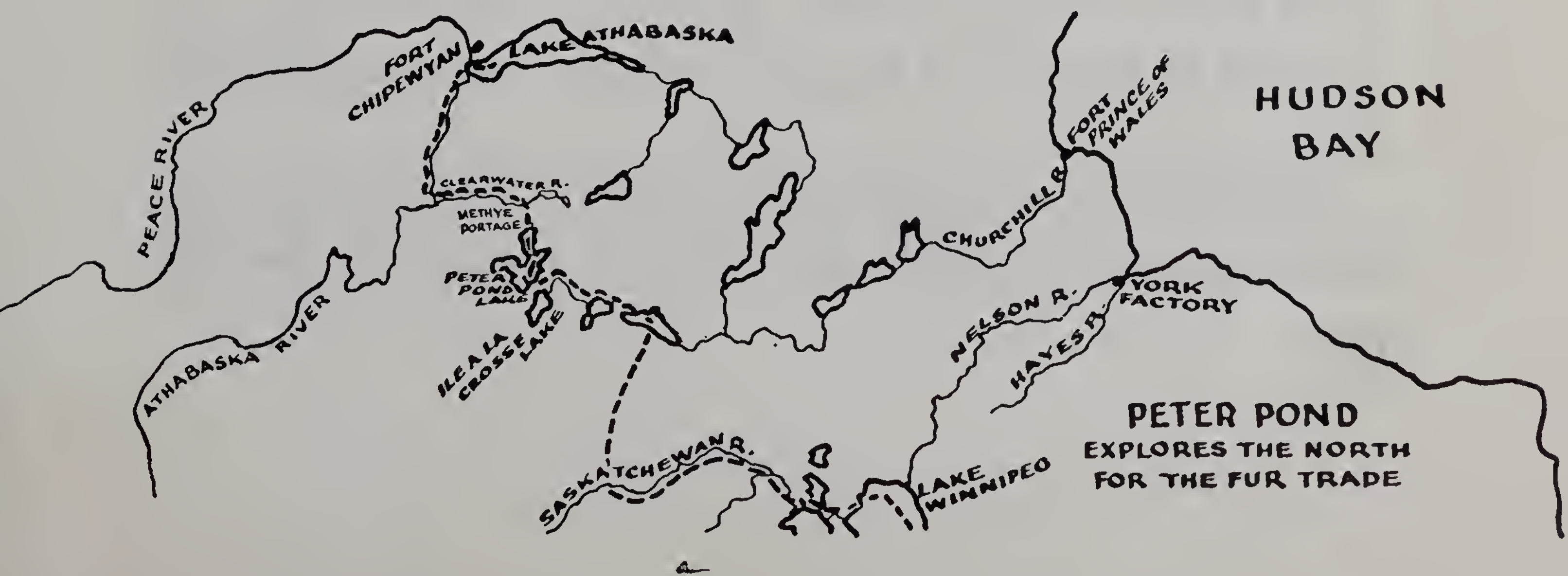
Another trader who kept a journal of his adventures was Peter Pond. He was a very poor speller; nevertheless, what remains of his journal is of great interest to historians. Unfortunately, most of it was used to light fires by people who did not realize how valuable it was. Pond talked to the Indians, persuading them to tell him about the rivers and lakes, and to draw maps for him. Although he had had little formal education, his maps added a great deal to the knowledge about the areas in which he traded. For some years after the end of the Seven Years War he traded south and west of Detroit. When he heard of the good furs of the north-west he decided to try his luck there and in 1775 he travelled to the Saskatchewan in the same party with Alexander Henry. He made his way to the Churchill River and followed it up to the Methye Portage, crossed over to the Clearwater River and paddled down to the Athabaska River which led him to Lake Athabaska. He was the first white man to go beyond Ile à la Crosse Lake and is recognized as the discoverer of Peter Pond Lake, Methye Portage, the Athabaska River, and Lake Athabaska. On the shores of Lake Athabaska he built a trading-post and carried on a thriving trade in furs. The first year the Indians brought him twice as many furs as he could carry back to Montreal.

THE NORTH WEST COMPANY

Competition was keen, not only between the traders from Montreal and traders from the Hudson's Bay Company, but between rival Montreal traders. The Indians began to demand more and more for their furs. Sometimes rival traders resorted to violence in their efforts to obtain the furs. Some of them, eager for quick profits, were treating the Indians unfairly. Indians who had been treated unjustly by one white man might take vengeance on the next they met. In an attempt to improve the situation, some of the Montreal traders decided to join forces and control the trade by forming the North West Company.

In the competition with the Hudson's Bay Company for furs, the Nor'westers, as they were called, held their own. From their headquarters at Grand Portage on Lake Superior they sent traders far and wide. They were more energetic than the Hudson's Bay men for they were partners in the company, not employees. They were also more experienced in travel on the rivers, and in living in the Indian country. They had, however, the disadvantage of the long and expensive trip from the West down to Montreal, while the Hudson's Bay men had a much shorter haul to their posts on Hudson Bay.

The struggle between the two companies had important results. In the search for new sources of fur trade, the rival traders kept pushing farther and farther west, establishing posts in the heart of the Indian country. Eventually, daring men pierced the barrier of the Rockies and then descended the rivers of the Pacific slope to the waters of the Western Sea which so many courageous explorers had sought in vain. It was the fur-traders, following where Kelsey, La Vérendrye, and Henday had led, who drew the map of western Canada.



PETER POND
EXPLORES THE NORTH
FOR THE FUR TRADE

Most of the fur-traders were interested in the new territory only because it promised rich profits from the fur trade. But there were some who were at heart explorers. Peter Pond was one of these. Though he did not neglect the profits from the trade, he was also interested in finding out more about the country. He planned an expedition to the Pacific, which he thought was not nearly as far from Lake Athabaska as it is. He never made the trip, but he inspired the man who did. In his last year in the north, he had with him in the Nor'wester fort a young Scot, named Alexander Mackenzie, who had come to take over the management of Fort Chipewyan, on Lake Athabaska.

Mackenzie found life at the fort dull. He longed to solve some of the mysteries of the North and West. He dreamed that he might be the one destined to find a passage to the Western Sea.

On June 3rd, 1789, he set out from Fort Chipewyan, with four French-Canadian voyageurs and a few Indians. They crossed Lake Athabaska to Slave River and followed the river down to Great Slave Lake. When they reached the lake, it was still covered with ice, except for a narrow strip of open water along the shore. After searching for nearly three weeks along the shore, they found the outlet they were seeking and started their journey down the river we know now as the Mackenzie.

The explorer was disappointed that the river flowed north, for he had hoped to find one flowing west. He named it the River Disappointment. But he did not turn back. He decided to find out, if he could, where it emptied into the ocean.

Mackenzie met Indians who tried to persuade him not to go any farther north. He wrote in his journal that the

Indians told him "it would require several weeks to get to the sea, and that old age would come upon us before the period of our return", and they warned him that he would meet "monsters of such horrid shapes and destructive powers as could exist only in their wild imaginations".

Mackenzie promised one of the Indians a kettle, an axe, and a knife if he would go with him. That was high pay, for the Indians valued such rare articles very greatly. Mackenzie's difficulty in persuading a guide to go with him showed clearly that the Indians really believed in the horrors to be encountered.

"Our new friend," Mackenzie wrote, "was desired to prepare himself for his departure, which he would have declined, but as none of his friends would take his place, we may be said, after the delay of an hour, to have compelled him to embark." Their guide did not last long. He ran away four days later during a thunderstorm.

Next day the party met a band of roving Indians and engaged a new guide who told them they could reach the sea in ten days. Provisions were running low, and this guide, too, was obviously terrified both of Eskimos and the nameless horrors of the north. The voyageurs began to urge Mackenzie to turn back. He persuaded them to go on for another week.

On July 12th the party camped on a small island. Mackenzie climbed up to its highest point, and, looking out to the west, he saw a broad field of ice. He had reached the Arctic Ocean, but he did not realize it until later when the tide rose in the river, threatening to swamp their tents and baggage.

Mackenzie and his men stayed on the coast three days. One day they saw some whales in the open water not far from shore. In his journal Mackenzie wrote, "We embarked in pursuit of them. . . . It was a very fortunate circumstance

Mackenzie and his men hunt whales in the Arctic Ocean.

that we failed in our attempts to overtake them, as one stroke from the tail of one of these enormous fish would have dashed the canoe to pieces."

On July 14th Mackenzie put up a post on the island, marking on it the latitude, his name, the number of his companions, and the time they remained there. When they started back, they had enough food for only twelve days. Fortunately, after they passed the mouth of the Great Bear River, they found plenty of berries, and as they went farther south wild fowl were plentiful.

At one place Mackenzie saw coal smouldering. At another, he saw oil oozing from the rocks. This must have been at Norman Wells. The first oil well was drilled there in 1920, and many more have been drilled since that time. A pipe-line from Norman Wells carried oil to the Alaska Highway during the Second World War.

This north country is now known to be rich in minerals. Silver, radium, and uranium have been discovered near Great Bear Lake. Uranium is a very important mineral to-day because it is used in producing atomic energy. The largest mine in this area is the Eldorado on Great Bear Lake.

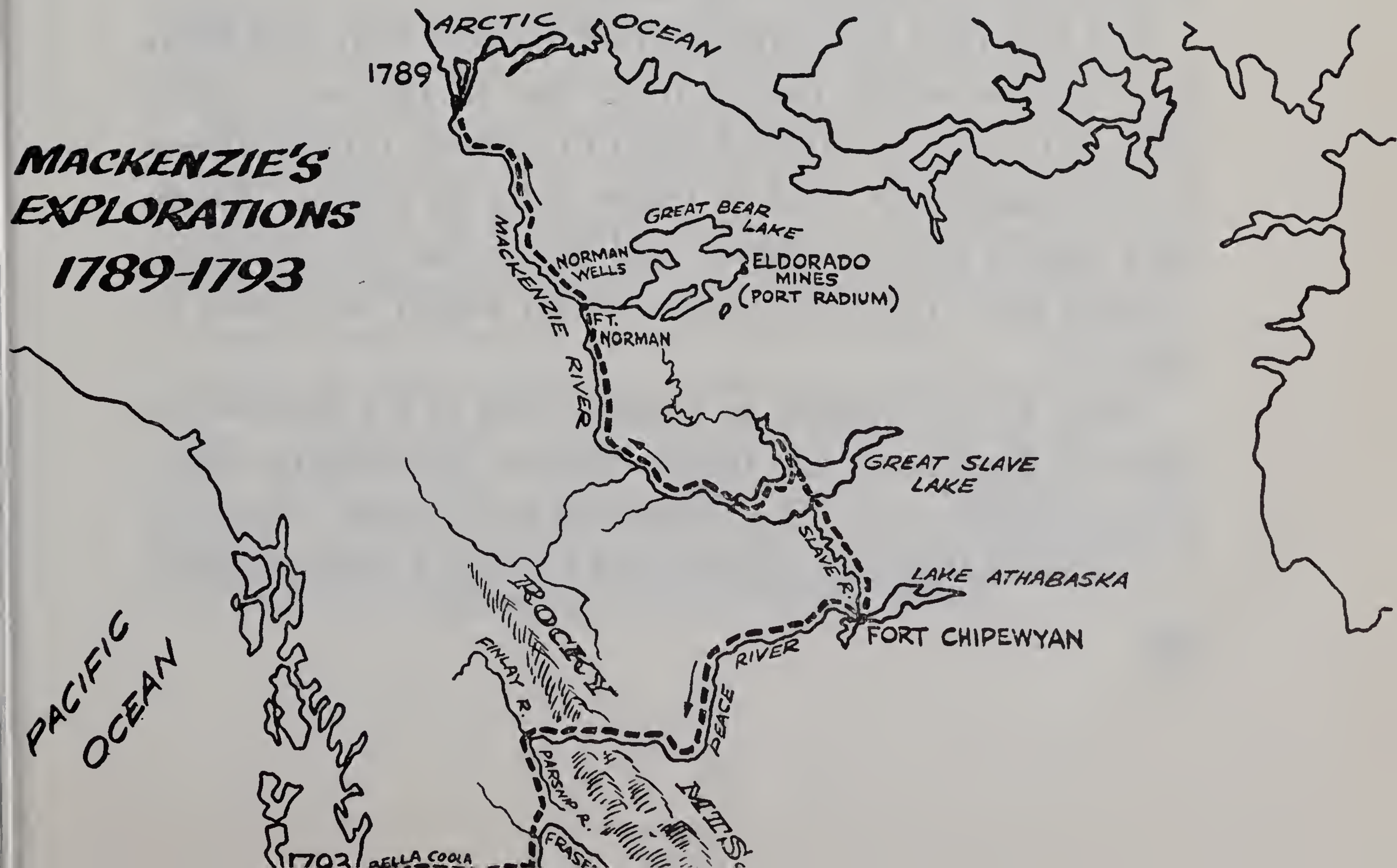
Mackenzie's trip back to Fort Chipewyan was a difficult one. Sometimes there was a wind, and the travellers could put up sails and sail up the river. But more often they could not paddle against the swift current. Then they had to rig up tow-lines and pull the canoes up-stream against the current. On September 12th, after an absence of one hundred and two days, they returned to Fort Chipewyan.

Travel is still difficult in that northern country. Great Bear Lake is eight hundred miles from the nearest railway. Freight has to go down the river during the summer by boat—a trip of two or three weeks. It is true that to-day aeroplanes are able to make the trip into Great Bear Lake in less than a day, but aeroplane travel is expensive, and many of the supplies still go in by the slow freight route.

TO THE PACIFIC, AT LAST

Mackenzie was not satisfied. He still dreamed of a great river flowing west. Requesting permission for leave of absence from his post, he went to England to study astronomy and surveying in preparation for another expedition.

In 1792 he returned to Fort Chipewyan and in October he set out on his second great voyage of discovery. He went up the Peace River and spent the winter in a fort which he built beyond the junction of the Peace and the Smoky. In the spring, he set out again. It was not easy. He encountered whirling rapids at what is now called Rocky Mountain Portage. For nine miles, he and his men cut their way through forest.



When the explorers came to where the Finlay and Parsnip rivers unite to form the Peace River, they met Indians who told them of a great river beyond the mountains, a river that flowed towards the noonday sun. They told of white men who wore armour, of huge canoes with sails like clouds which sailed upon the "bitter waters", as they called the Pacific Ocean. Mackenzie knew then that he must be near the coast. The Indians must have seen or heard of some of the ships in which Russians or the Spanish or the English had sailed along the Pacific coast.

Mackenzie and his men struggled up the Parsnip River to the small lake from which it flowed. A short portage brought them to a second small lake from which a river flowed to the west. They had crossed the Great Divide, the height of land which separates the rivers flowing to the north and east from those flowing to the west. When you cross the mountains by train to-day, you can see the Great Divide marked with signposts.

Now they were on the Bad River, and bad it was for canoes. Discouraged by the dangers they had faced, the men were ready to turn back, but Mackenzie urged them on till they reached the Fraser River. He was disappointed to find that it flowed to the south.

In a few days the explorers met Indians who told them that terrible rapids barred their way to the sea on this river. The Indians advised them to go back up the Fraser to the Blackwater, and to follow it to its source. There they would find an Indian trail across the mountains to another river, the Bella Coola, which would take them to the sea.

When he was visiting an Indian camp in the Blackwater country, Mackenzie saw Indian children with strange ornaments in their ears. The ornaments were coins. One was an English halfpenny; another was a State of Massachusetts

Today, near the mouth of the Bella Coola River, you can see this rock with the inscription chiselled on it.

halfpenny dated 1787. How had those pennies come there? White traders must have been in this country or on the coast not long before Mackenzie arrived.

At last Mackenzie reached the Pacific. His party stayed there for three days in spite of threats from unfriendly Indians, but Mackenzie would not leave until he had determined the latitude with his instruments. With a mixture of vermilion and grease he wrote in large letters upon a great stone, ALEXANDER MACKENZIE FROM CANADA, BY LAND, THE TWENTY-SECOND OF JULY, ONE THOUSAND SEVEN HUNDRED AND NINETY-THREE. This inscription is now chiselled in the stone, to mark the spot where this bold explorer left his record.

Mackenzie was again disappointed, for he had not found an easy route to the Western Sea. He had, however, travelled through hundreds of miles of country where no white man had set foot before. He was the first white man to cross North America to the Pacific Ocean. He wrote an account of his explorations which was published in 1801. Many people read it and became interested in the new land. Among the readers was Thomas Douglas, Lord Selkirk, who was inspired by Mackenzie's description of the Red River Valley to found a colony there.

"The lords of the lakes and the forests" as the Nor'westers were called, are all passed away. Towns and cities stand where once they built their trading-posts. Railways, steamboats, and aeroplanes have taken the place of the canoe. But the memory of such path-finders as Alexander Henry, Peter Pond, and Alexander Mackenzie is still green. Their achievements are written forever on the map of Canada.

34. The Race for the Pacific

"By the bones of your brothers ye know it, but oh, to follow
you're fain;
By your bones they will follow behind you, till the ways of
the world are made plain."

Robert W. Service: *The Lone Trail*

The Montreal partners of the Nor'westers were more interested in Mackenzie's expedition to the Pacific than they had been in his trip to the Arctic. When they heard his accounts of the sea-otters off the Pacific Coast, they saw that it might be profitable to establish posts in the territory west of the Rockies. They knew that Russian traders were on the coast and that American traders were headed that way.

The Nor'westers realized that if they wanted to take control of the Columbia River district, there was no time to lose. Captain Vancouver and Captain Gray had reported their discovery of the mouth of a broad, navigable river flowing into the Pacific, which Gray had named the Columbia. They knew where it flowed into the sea, but no explorer had travelled far along it. No one knew where its source was. The North West Company wanted to explore that river, and to establish trading-posts on it.

Rivers were the natural routes of travel for the traders and for the Indians who brought furs to them. If the North West Company could find the upper waters of the river, they believed they could build up a thriving trade in furs west of the Rockies. Their cargoes could be taken down the river to the Pacific and shipped to Europe by way of the Cape Horn route round the tip of South America. The partners looked for a man they could send out to explore this territory.

SIMON FRASER

An experienced trader, Simon Fraser, a man known to possess great courage and endurance, was sent out to find the upper waters of the Columbia and to establish posts for the Nor'westers in the country west of the Rockies. In 1805 he set out, following Mackenzie's route up the Peace River. At Rocky Mountain Portage he established his first trading-post. After he crossed the Rockies he built Fort McLeod on McLeod Lake, the first trading-post on the mainland of what is now the province of British Columbia. Then he built Fort St. James on Stuart Lake, Fort Fraser on Fraser Lake, and Fort George at the junction of the Fraser and the Nechaco rivers.

In May, 1808, Simon Fraser with his men left Fort George to begin his exploration of the swift-flowing river which he believed was the Columbia. We know that it was not the Columbia but the Fraser, which empties into the ocean many miles north of the mouth of the Columbia.

To-day when we see that river and when we look at the steep mountain walls that enclose it, we wonder how Fraser and his men ever made the journey. Dangerous rapids threatened to swamp their canoes. Nevertheless, the explorers had to shoot the rapids because they could not possibly carry their canoes up the steep cliffs.

Fraser and his men risk their lives to explore the hazardous river.

Before Fraser and his men had gone very far, the river became even more difficult. Now they dared not risk the rapids. They had to abandon their canoes, and climb up the overhanging cliffs on frail ladders built of ropes and branches. The Indians, who had built these ladders, did not find them difficult because they were used to them. But the white men had never tried climbing along a steep rock wall and they found it a very terrifying experience. One false step would have meant death in the raging torrent below.

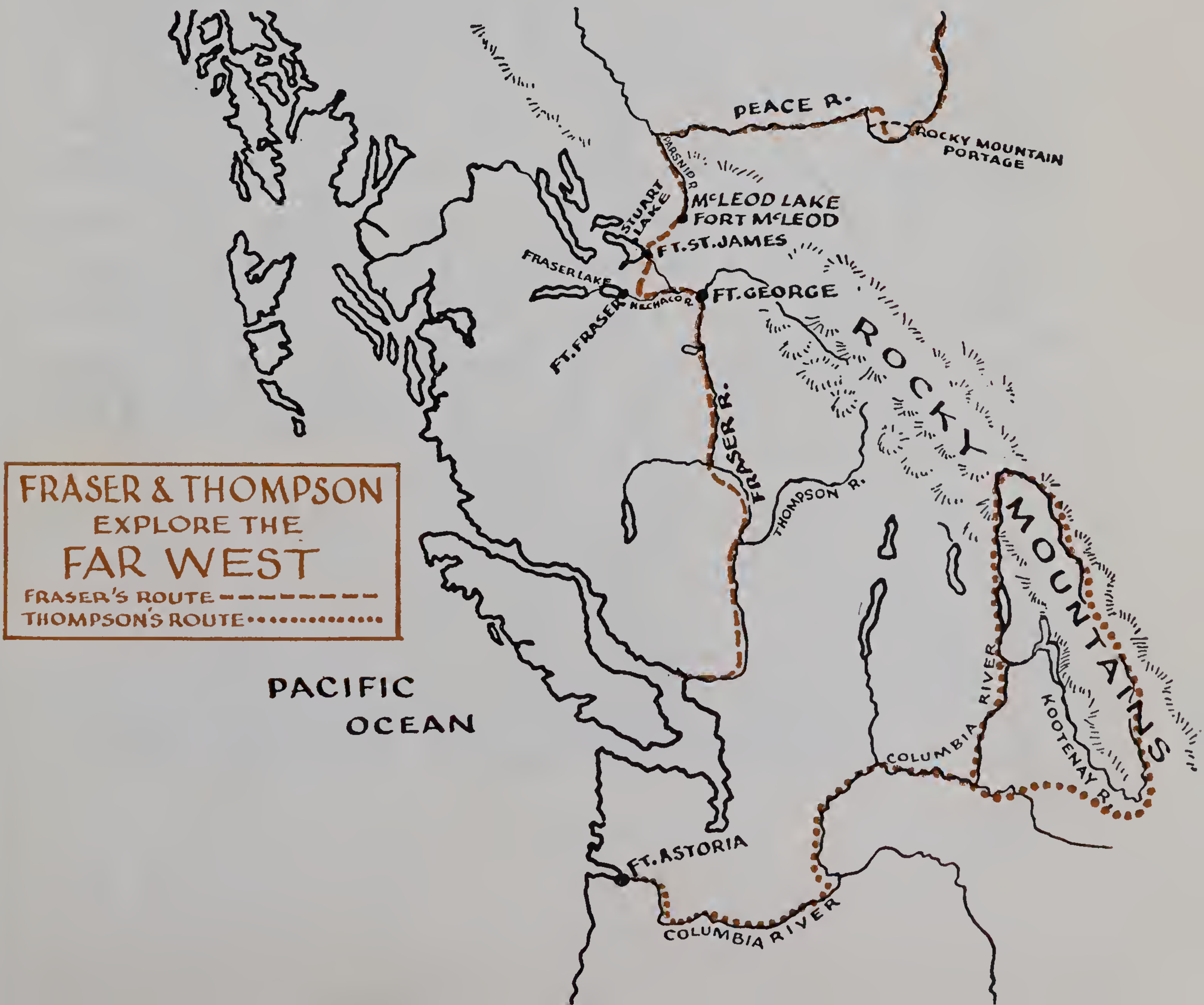
After the worst of the rapids had been passed, the explorers persuaded the Indians to sell them some rough boats made from hollowed logs. When they realized that the river was flowing due west, they knew that, after all their desperate struggle, they had not found the river they had been instructed to explore. Fraser knew that they were then in latitude 49° and that the Columbia reached the sea in latitude 46°.

Bitterly disappointed, the little party started their return trip. For a second time they had to undergo the hardships, the dangers, and the fears of the terrible journey.

Fraser had failed to find the upper waters of the Columbia. However, he had opened up new country for the fur trade and he had established trading-posts. He had proved that there was a second great river flowing westward through the mountains to the Pacific, and he had followed that river, through great difficulties and dangers, to the coast. To-day this river is called the Fraser after the brave trader who first explored its turbulent course.

DAVID THOMPSON, MAP-MAKER AND EXPLORER

David Thompson was a young boy of London who was taken from school at the age of fourteen and apprenticed to the Hudson's Bay Company. At school his favourite subjects had been mathematics and geography. When he was in the service of the Hudson's Bay Company, his superior officers found that he was unusually good at map-making and surveying. He longed to travel



Map-making was one of the important jobs of the explorer, David Thompson.

and explore. But the directors of the Company were not really interested in exploration. Their interest was in the fur trade.

Thompson, disappointed that he was not going to have a chance to work at the surveying and the map-making which he enjoyed, decided to leave the Hudson's Bay Company and to try to get a job with the North West Company. He tramped seventy miles to the nearest North West post to offer his services.

This was in 1797. At that time the Nor'westers were in difficulty. By the treaty which was drawn up at the close of the American Revolution, the British had agreed to a boundary which left many of their trading-posts in American territory. The boundary was to run through the middle of Lake Ontario, Lake Erie, Lake Huron, and Lake Superior and by a chain of lakes and rivers to the northwestern point of the Lake of the Woods and thence due west to the Mississippi. The men who drew up the treaty did not know that a line due west from the Lake of the Woods would not meet the Mississippi.

The Nor'westers realized that they would lose their posts at Detroit, Niagara, Michilimackinac, and Green Bay, and they feared that they would lose Grand Portage, the headquarters of their western trade. The boundary was not settled west of the Lake of the Woods, but it was expected that it would be the 49th parallel. It became very im-

With the help of the Indian woman Sacajawea, Lewis and Clark obtain horses for the difficult journey across the Rockies.

the Missouri River. They spent the winter among the Mandan Indians in North Dakota, where they had the good fortune to meet a French trapper who could tell them something about the country farther west. His wife was an Indian woman named Sacajawea, the sister of a chief of the tribe of Indians who lived in what is now northern Idaho. Sacajawea was able to tell them what route they would have to take across the Rocky Mountains, and she and her husband agreed to go with them in the spring. When they reached the upper waters of the Missouri they met Sacajawea's brother who agreed to supply the explorers with pack horses for the trip across the mountains. After they made their way through the mountains, they built boats and paddled down the mighty Columbia River. They reached the mouth of the river on November 8, 1805.

This exploration, along with John Jacob Astor's fort at Astoria, and Captain Robert Gray's discovery of the mouth of the Columbia gave the United States a strong claim to the Oregon country, but fur-traders from both Canada and the United States continued to explore and trade there for many years before the boundary was settled.

35. Westward Expansion of the United States

"We shall go
Always a little further: it may be
Beyond that last blue mountain barred with snow."
JAMES ELROY FLECKER: *Hassan*

So many people sought new homes in America that it was not long before the good land near the sea was all taken. Gradually the borders of settlement were pushed inland. Men looking for the new land followed the creeks and the rivers into the backwoods. There when they found a place which looked promising they made their homes. A bit of land was cleared and corn planted to provide corn-meal for their bread and pancakes for the winter. Often they lived in a tent until they had planted the corn, and then built log cabins for winter shelter. For cooking and heating stone fireplaces were built in the cabins. Sometimes families lived in the backwoods a long time before they got boards to cover the dirt floor or glass for the windows. Beds were simply deerskins or bearskins spread on the floor; tables and stools were made of rough hewn boards from the trees they cut down. Usually the settlers had brought pigs and hens and a cow with them from the settlements, and they found fish in the streams and deer and bear in the woods. Despite their hardships there were many who, as soon as neighbours came, moved on again to the frontier, because they did not like being "crowded". Naturally the Indians did not like to see the white men settling in their hunting-grounds and they often attacked the settlers, burning their little cabins, taking people captive or killing them, taking the furs the settlers had hoped to exchange for household goods. There were few pioneer families that did not lose some members to the Indians.

Hunters who had gone beyond the mountains told of a beautiful country, where the trees grew tall and straight, grass covered the ground and the deer and the buffalo were plentiful. When the good land east of the mountains was taken up, pioneers began to look for passes through the mountains to this promising country. There were two great obstacles to settlement beyond the mountains. One was that it was difficult to take goods across them; the other was that the Indians would be certain to oppose settlement.

As early as 1769 Daniel Boone set out for Kentucky. During his first winter the Indians captured Boone's party and took all their furs. Most of the group went back to the settlements but Boone remained to explore the country. He had determined to start a settlement there and was looking for a good site. In 1775 he brought his family and some neighbours through the mountains to build the first settlement in Kentucky.

Such pathfinders as Daniel Boone were in some ways like the coureurs de bois of New France. They were good hunters and skilled in the ways of the Indians. They knew how to get food and shelter in the wilderness; they knew how to get along with the Indians; they knew how to fight the Indians if they had to fight. Once when Boone was an Indian captive he heard the Indians planning to attack the settlement he had founded. He escaped and succeeded in reaching the fort in four days, a distance of one hundred

Pioneering Daniel Boone selects a site for settlement in Kentucky.

and sixty miles, even though the Indians were hunting him all the time.

Between the frontiersmen and the coureurs de bois, there was, however, a very important difference. The frontiersmen from the tide-water country were preparing the way for settlement and often they were noted "Indian fighters". The coureurs de bois were fur-traders, and, since they did not want settlers in the area any more than the Indians did, they usually became friends and allies of the Indians.

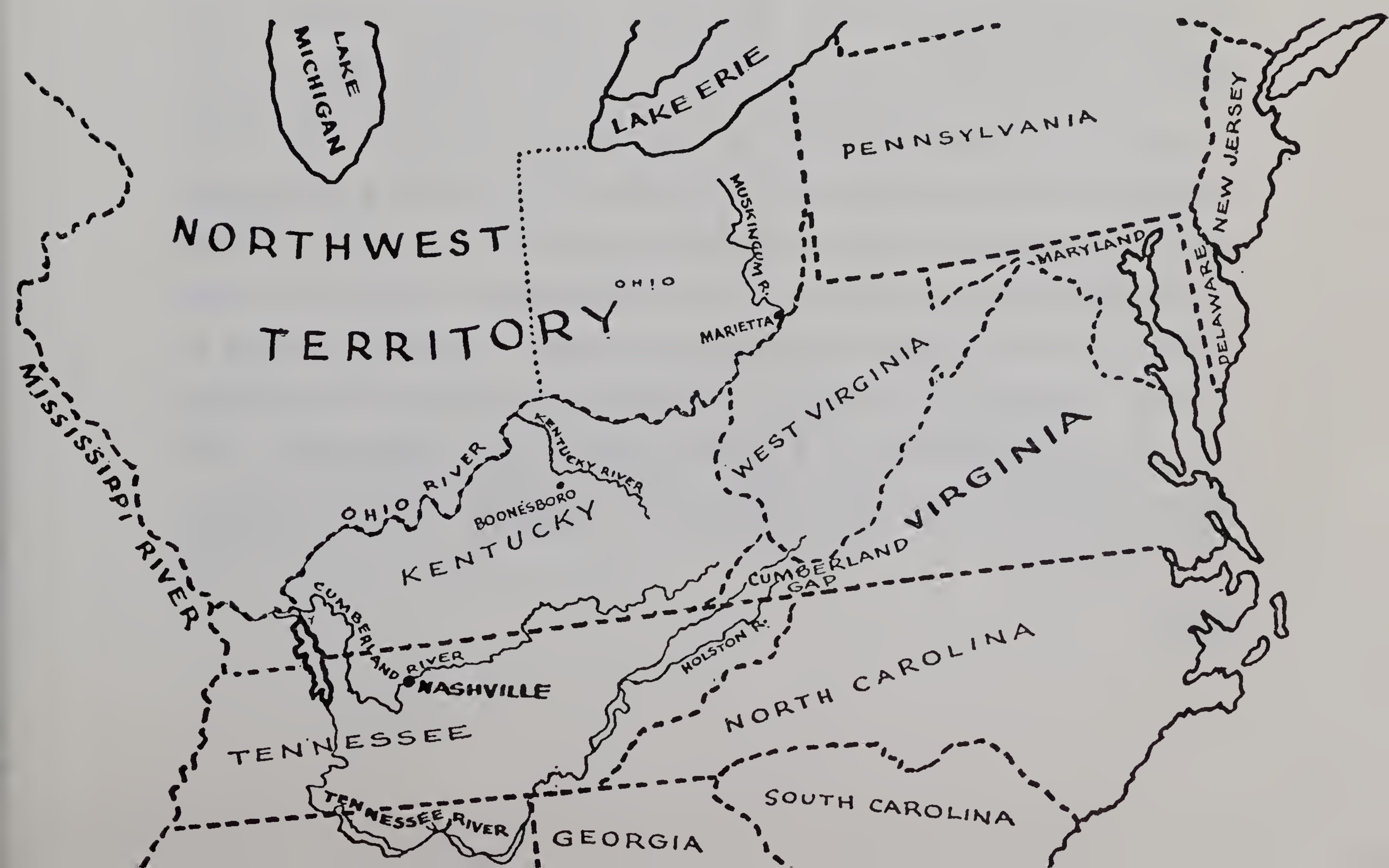
The pioneers who extended the fringe of settlement westward beyond the mountains were bitterly opposed by the Indians. Travelling parties were attacked and scalped before they reached their destinations. Families in lonely cabins were always on guard, and many a family was massacred or taken prisoner by the Indians, and the little cabin burned to the ground. Hunters who went out into the forest, or children who wandered away from the clearing, were seized and carried away.

PIONEERS MOVE INTO TENNESSEE

Other pioneers led parties into Tennessee and into the Ohio Valley. Business men formed companies to buy land from the Indians and hoped to make money selling it to settlers. A settlement was established at Nashville, Tennessee, in 1780, made up mostly of people who had already settled in the eastern part of Tennessee. They went by boat down the Holston River to the Tennessee, down to the Ohio, up the Ohio to the Cumberland River, and then up the Cumberland to Nashville. It was a long journey, over a thousand miles, and a dangerous one, too, for they were in constant fear of being attacked by the Indians or of being wrecked in the swift current of the rivers. It took them over four months to reach their destination.

In 1787 the government began to open up the Ohio territory to settlement. It made treaties, often unfair treaties, with the Indians to gain possession of the land. Then it sold millions of acres to land companies, often made up of friends of the government, who in turn sold it at handsome profits to pioneers who wished to make their homes there. Congress also stated that it would send officers to govern the territory until enough settlers moved in to form governments of their own. When there were enough settlers to warrant it, the territories would be formed into states which would become a part of the United States of America.

General Rufus Putnam of Massachusetts, in the employ of the Ohio Company, led a large group of settlers to new homes on the Muskingum River near the present site of Marietta. These settlers sent back to their old friends such good accounts of the country that many more came to join them. Hundreds of flat-bottomed boats set forth on the Ohio River, some coming ashore in Ohio, some going on to Kentucky. So many people from New England set out for the rich new farm land that some of the business men,



fearing that New England would be ruined, tried to discourage people by telling them tales of the hardships and dangers they would encounter.

It was no venture for the weak or the timid. It took courage, and strength, and hard work, but thousands of the pioneers succeeded in making new homes in what had once been the wilderness. The unhappy Indians, having lost their hunting-grounds to the white man, retreated farther west, but not without a struggle. The pioneers had to be constantly on guard against Indian attacks.

SHIPPING THEIR PRODUCE TO MARKET

The journey to the farm land west of the mountains was difficult, whether the pioneers went by boat or by horse, with pack-horses carrying their possessions. When they produced more food than they needed for themselves, it was a long way to market. It would not have paid to take heavy goods through the mountain passes or by the difficult river routes by which they had reached their homes. Most of the goods they sold went down the Ohio to the Mississippi, then down the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico, and up the Atlantic Coast to the older settlements on the seaboard or to England. It was a long route, but it was the only way the pioneers in Ohio and Kentucky and Tennessee could send heavy goods to market. Spain controlled the mouth of the Mississippi and for a time would not let the Americans ship their goods through it. Later, however, President Washington persuaded Spain to let the Americans send goods down the Mississippi and transfer them to ocean-going sailing-ships without paying an extra tax.

For Further Study

1. Make a mural telling the story of the life of Henry Kelsey.

2. When Kelsey returned from his expedition into the land of the Assiniboine Indians, he brought with him an Indian wife. It was against the Company regulations to allow Indians to enter the fort. Kelsey refused to go in without her. Finally the governor agreed to let her come in. Dramatize this scene.

3. Prepare a report such as Hearne might have made to the factor at Fort Prince of Wales after his expedition to the mouth of the Coppermine River.

4. Find out why the possession of Alaska is so important to the United States to-day.

5. During World War II the Alaska Highway was built by the Americans. On a map of Canada mark the Alaska Highway. Why was it built?

6. Captain Cook was the pilot who took Wolfe's ships up the St. Lawrence to attack Quebec. He made many voyages before he came to the Pacific Coast. Make a report on his career before he came to the Pacific Coast.

7. Write a letter such as Alexander Henry might have sent to his family describing his experiences when Pontiac took Michilimackinac.

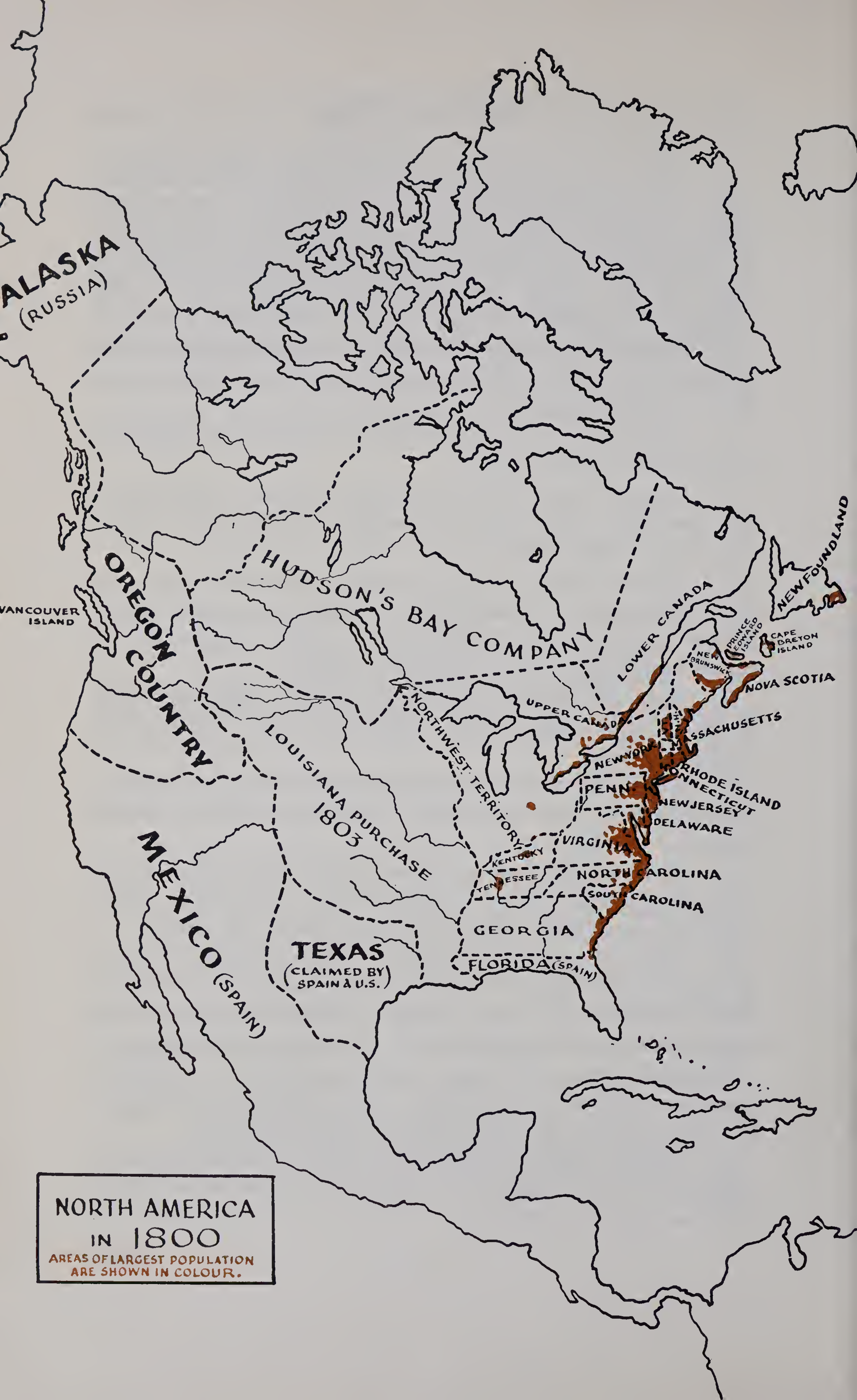
8. Make a list of the surprising changes Alexander Mackenzie would find if he could paddle down the Mackenzie River to-day.

9. Write a letter that a member of Alexander Mackenzie's party might have written to his brother in Scotland telling about the expedition from Fort Chipewyan to the Arctic.

10. One group might prepare a scene showing Fraser's disappointment when he found he had not explored the Columbia; another group might prepare a scene portraying what happened when Thompson reached the mouth of the Columbia.

11. Dramatize a meeting of Lewis and Clark with their families when they returned from their expedition to the Pacific. The explorers would tell about their experiences.

12. Daniel Boone's daughter and some companions were captured by the Indians. Dramatize her return to her home after her father rescued her.



NORTH AMERICA
IN 1800
AREAS OF LARGEST POPULATION
ARE SHOWN IN COLOUR.

Epilogue

North America in 1800

"I hear the tread of pioneers,
Of nations yet to be;
The first long wash of waves where soon
Shall roll a human sea."
JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER: *On Receiving an Eagle's Quill from Lake Superior*

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA

In 1800 British North America consisted of a number of separate colonies which had little connection one with another, except that they were all under the British flag. On the Atlantic seaboard there were Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island. Along the St. Lawrence and north of the Great Lakes were the Canadas—Lower Canada, now known as Quebec, and Upper Canada, now known as Ontario. Quebec and Ontario were not, however, the size of the present provinces, but only a small area along the St. Lawrence, the Ottawa, Lake Ontario, and Lake Erie. In the interior were the vast territories of the Hudson's Bay Company, stretching as far west as the Rocky Mountains. This territory included what is now northern Quebec, north-western Ontario, and the present provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Alberta. The north-western area, by 1800, was dotted with the fur trading-posts of the Nor'westers and the Hudson's Bay Company, but there were no settlers.

By 1800 there were sixteen states in the Union, the original thirteen along the seacoast, and Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee in the back country. Settlers were moving into the Ohio country. Traders and explorers had penetrated beyond the Mississippi, and American explorers and traders had been on the West Coast.

Florida belonged to Spain. It had been ceded to Britain in 1763, but was restored to Spain in 1783. Louisiana, which the French had ceded to Spain at the end of the Seven Years War, was given back to France in 1800, to remain French until Napoleon sold it to the United States three years later.

THE WEST COAST

Russian, British, American, and Spanish traders were on the West Coast. The Russians took rich ship-loads of sea-otter from the seas near the Aleutian Islands and Alaska. The Spaniards still ruled Mexico and had missions in California, and, as we have seen, tried to claim Vancouver Island, but the English would not allow them to do so. British and American traders came by ship round Cape Horn, but only Alexander Mackenzie had made the journey overland before 1800. The control of the West Coast was still not settled.

THE FIRST PERIOD OF EXPLORATION WAS COMING TO A CLOSE

With the explorations of Samuel Hearne and Alexander Mackenzie in the eighteenth century and those of Lewis and Clark, Fraser and Thompson in the early years of the nineteenth, the first phase of exploration of the continent was coming to a close. There were still thousands of miles of territory where no white man had set foot, but explorers had been on all the large rivers and lakes, except the Yukon, and reports had been made of the country around them. The north and the west were still the land of the fur-trader and the Indian, but they were no longer a completely unknown land. The search for the North West Passage had not been given up, although it was now realized that it would not be practicable for purposes of trade.

THE NEW WORLD IN 1800

In 1800 the population of the United States was less than 5,500,000. Philadelphia, though no longer the largest city, had 41,220 inhabitants. New York had grown very rapidly and in 1800 had a population of 79,216.

In 1800, Toronto was only seven years old and it was in that year that the first white baby was born there. Also in that year the first jail was built. The Parliament Buildings had been built and Parliament had met. The first town meeting was held in 1799, but Toronto was still a small village.

In Montreal there were merchants who were making good money out of the fur trade. Good stone houses were being built, but even Montreal, to-day Canada's largest city, had only about 8,000 people in it in 1800. Halifax was about the same size, and there, too, prosperous merchants and ship-builders were building fine houses.

If a citizen of Canada or the United States who was alive in 1800 could visit us to-day he would be amazed at the changes which have taken place.

To-day the United States stretches from Florida to Canada, from the Atlantic to the Pacific. The newest states are Alaska to the Hawaiian Islands. By 1960, the population of the United States was over 179,000,000. It is now recognized as one of the most powerful nations in the world, with many military, naval, and aircraft bases all round the globe. Canada, too, stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the Arctic to the American border. It is still part of the British Commonwealth of Nations but it is independent, no longer governed by Great Britain. By 1960 the population was over 17,000,000. Canada takes its place in world affairs, in the United Nations, and in other world organizations such as the World Health Organization, the Colombo Plan, the North Atlantic Treaty Organization.

In 1800, most of the people, both in Canada and the United States, were living on farms, and many of them were clearing new land on the frontier. Except in a few places, such as Kingston, where there was plenty of stone, the houses were built of logs or of boards. There were no furnaces, and few stoves. As a rule the open fireplace, piled high with logs, served both for cooking and for heating the house. No one had dreamed of electric lights. Even coal-oil lamps had not been invented. Houses were lit by candles.

The sanitary conditions of those days would shock us. Even in the larger towns pig pens might be close to the house, and garbage was thrown in the streets. Water was carried from rivers and lakes in barrels and pails. Epidemics caused by polluted water were frequent.

The General Store was just what its name said: the store that had everything, the shopping centre of the community.

The staple diet in the country districts was oatmeal porridge, bread, pork, and potatoes. Oranges and lemons were rare treats. Bananas, figs, and dates were almost unknown. There were no imported fresh fruits and vegetables to be bought during the winter. Dried and preserved fruits were put away during the summer and it was a matter of pride for each housewife to have enough to use until next season's supply came in. Vegetables from the garden were stored in root-cellars. When they were all used up, the family did without. Tea and coffee, which had to be imported, were so expensive that many settlers could not afford them.

BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

In Halifax and Montreal, and in the American cities on the seacoast, Boston, New York, Philadelphia and Charleston, many ship-owners and merchants were building up prosperous businesses. Very little manufacturing was done in the British provinces, but in the United States considerable manufacturing was taking place in small eastern shops and a lively trade developing in both woollen and leather goods. There were also some iron and steel works.

Business and industry were not as highly organized as they are to-day. There were few large companies; most businesses were owned by one man or by partners. There were many general stores in which a great variety of goods was sold but there were no large department stores such as we have to-day, no chain stores, no supermarkets. Most goods were sold on credit. The store-keeper had to make enough profit to provide against bad debts, for there were always some people who could not, or would not, pay. Many farmers used no cash when they went to buy goods. The farmer's wife brought her butter and eggs to the local store-keeper and took her payments in goods. Farmers paid the doctor or the lawyer very often in produce, bringing in a side of beef, or half a pig, or a load of wood. Prices were not marked on the goods in the shops and the farmer tried to get as much as he could for his produce, and pay as little as possible for what he bought, while the merchant tried to pay as little as possible and charge as much as he could for the goods he gave in exchange. It was thought clever to drive a hard bargain.

SCHOOLS AND CHURCHES

In Lower Canada, Laval University, which had been founded in 1663, provided an education for boys who were planning to become priests or lawyers. There were schools run by the Roman Catholic Church for boys and girls, but the majority of the children did not go to school at all. In Halifax there were schools to which people who could afford the fees sent their children.

In the United States several universities had been founded before 1800. Harvard, William and Mary, and Yale were the earliest. They also served chiefly to educate young men for the clergy. New England had established good schools for children, but in the rest of America only parents who could afford to pay fees could send their children to school. Many children grew up unable to read or write. In the schools there were few books and no blackboards. Goose-quill pens were still in use; fountain pens and even steel pen nibs had not yet been invented. Paper was scarce and expensive. There were some schools where the children brought birch-bark on which to do their arithmetic and spelling. Slates, on which the children wrote with a squeaking slate pencil, were in common use.

In the towns and cities there were churches of many denominations, but in the backwoods the people depended

A travelling "Circuit Rider" preaches outdoors.

on travelling preachers, called "Circuit Riders". These preachers rode on horseback from one district to another, and held camp meetings in the open air if they could not find a home large enough to hold their congregations.

Books were scarce. The first circulating library in America was started in Philadelphia by Benjamin Franklin. There readers could borrow books if they could afford to pay to belong to the library. Few people owned many books and since books were scarce and expensive, they were highly prized. In many homes it was the custom to read a book aloud in the evening while the family gathered round the fireside.

AMUSEMENTS

There was a greater difference between the social life in the cities and in the country than there is to-day. There were no moving pictures, no radios, no television sets. In the provincial capitals, Quebec and Halifax, where there were officials and army and navy officers who had come from Britain, they tried to have a social life such as they had had in Britain. Elaborate parties with music and dancing were held, where servants or slaves placed rich food before the guests. It was the same in the larger American cities, such as New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Baltimore, and Charleston, where there were many fine homes and wealthy

Both city and country folk take time to enjoy themselves, each in their own way.

people. There were concerts and debating societies, too. Sometimes plays were presented by travelling actors. Though some boys and young men played lacrosse, a game they had learned from the Indians, few people played games. Baseball, tennis, hockey, and golf were still unknown in America. Riding, dancing, and skating, where the weather permitted, were the chief forms of exercise.

In the country, amusements were few and simple. "Bees" gave the neighbours an opportunity for social gatherings. Settlers gathered to help a neighbour to pull the logs to the site he had chosen for his house, or to help with a barn-raising. The host provided the best food and drink he could for the occasion, and, after the work was done, the neighbours stayed for a dance in the new barn. No stately quadrilles or waltzes such as were danced in the city! The country people preferred lively square dances, jigs, reels, and hornpipes.

Even after there was no longer any need for logging or barn-raising bees, the country folk continued to gather, using the work parties as an excuse for a visit. In the fall there were apple-paring bees and corn-husking bees. At a paring-bee the apples were cut and pared and hung on strings to dry. At a corn-husking bee the young men looked eagerly for an ear of corn with red kernels. Any young man lucky enough to find one had the privilege of kissing any girl at the party—if he could catch her. There were picking-bees and carding-bees to prepare the wool for spinning, and quilting-bees to make up patchwork quilts.

Sometimes young and old gathered in the school house for a spelling-bee. Or a travelling singing teacher visited the settlement, and people gathered in the church or in the school house for a singing school, to sing old songs and learn new ones under his direction.

WHAT OF THE FUTURE?

Canadians and Americans had made a brave beginning in opening up and settling this new land, but many problems lay before them. Would they live peacefully side by side or would they settle their disputes by war? Were the Indians going to give up their lands without a struggle? Would the citizens of British North America be satisfied with a government which kept most of the power in the hands of the Executive and Legislative Councils and trusted so little to the people's elected representatives? How were the Americans going to solve the problem of a central government strong enough for safety and state governments strong enough to protect the rights of each state? Which nation was going to control the north and west? What problems were going to arise as a result of slave labour on the southern plantations? What would happen to the fur-traders when settlers moved in to their territory? These are some of the questions to which we will find the answers in next year's history class.

BOOKS TO READ

Here is a list of books which you may enjoy and which you will find helpful. You may find some of them in your school library. The number after the title indicates the unit (or units) for which these books will be most useful.

Adventurers of England on Hudson Bay, Aileen Garland. Copp Clark (IV, VII)
Americans Before Columbus, Elizabeth C. Baity. Macmillan (I)
America's Paul Revere, Esther Forbes and Lynd Ward. Thomas Allen (VI)
America Then and Now, Edna McGuire. Brett-Macmillan (III, VI, VII)
At the Tide's Turn and Other Tales, Thomas H. Raddall. McClelland & Stewart, New Canadian Library (VI)
Autobiography, Benjamin Franklin. Pocket Books (VI)

Backgrounds of American Freedom, Edna McGuire. Brett-Macmillan (III, VI)
Barnaby Lee, John Bennett. Saunders (III)
Basic Documents in Canadian History, James J. Talman. McClelland & Stewart (I-VII)
Battle Lanterns, Merritt P. Allen. Longmans, Green (VI)
The Bear Who Stole the Chinook, Frances Fraser. Macmillan (I)
Ben Franklin of Old Philadelphia, Margaret Cousins. Random House (VI)
Beppy Marlowe, Elizabeth Gray. Macmillan (III)
Beyond the Clapping Mountains, Charles E. Gillham. Brett-Macmillan (I)
The Birthday of a Nation: July 4, 1776, F. Rogers and A. Beard. Longman, Green (VI)
Brave Young Land, Edna McGuire. Brett-Macmillan (III, VI)
Brook Watson of Beausejour, C. A. M. Edwards. Ryerson (V)

Canadians of Long Ago, Kenneth Kidd. Longmans, Green (I)
Captain of the Discovery, Roderick Haig-Brown. Macmillan (VII)
Champlain, Louise Hall Tharp. McClelland & Stewart (II, IV)

Changing Canada, Vol. 1: "Fish, Fur and Exploration" and *Vol. 2: "The New France and the Loyalists"*, MARY Q. INNIS. Clarke, Irwin (IV, VII and II, V, VI)
Christopher Columbus, Mariner, SAMUEL E. MORISON. Little, Brown (I)
Company of Adventurers, LOUISE HALL THARP. McClelland & Stewart (IV, VII)
Crystal Cornerstone, LORNA DOONE BEERS. Musson (VI)

Daniel Boone, JOHN MASON BROWN. Random House (VII)
Daniel Boone, J. DAUGHERTY. Macmillan (VII)
The Day Must Dawn, AGNES TURNBULL. Brett-Macmillan (III, VI)
Drummer Boy for Montcalm, WILMA PITCHFORD HAYS. Macmillan (V)
Drums in the Forest, ALLAN DWIGHT. Brett-Macmillan (II, V)

Evangeline, H. W. LONGFELLOW. Brett-Macmillan (V, VI)
Everyday Things in American Life, Vol. 1: 1607-1776, W. C. LANGDON. Saunders (III, VI)

Fair Wind to Virginia, CORNELIA MEIGS. Brett-Macmillan (III, VI)
Famous Canadian Stories, DONALD FRENCH. McClelland & Stewart (V, VI)
The Farthest Shores, RODERICK HAIG-BROWN. Longmans, Green (VII)
The Fighting Le Moynes, FRED SWAYZE. Ryerson (V)
From Cartier to Champlain: The Story of the Founding of Canada, M. and E. JEANNERET. Copp Clark (I, II)
Frontenac and the Iroquois, FRED SWAYZE. Macmillan (V)
Full-Grown Nation, EDNA MCGUIRE. Brett-Macmillan (VI, VII)

George Washington, Leader of the People, CLARA JUDSON. Ambassador (VI)
Golden Dog, WILLIAM KIRBY. Macmillan (V)
The Great Adventure, DONALDA DICKIE. Dent (I-VII)
Great Americans, C. B. RUTLEY. Macmillan (III, VI)
The Growth of Democracy, EDNA MCGUIRE and DON C. ROGERS. Brett-Macmillan (III, VI)

He Went with Champlain, LOUISE KENT. Thomas Allen (II, IV)
He Went with Christopher Columbus, LOUISE KENT. Thomas Allen (I)
He Went with Magellan, LOUISE KENT. Thomas Allen (I)
He Went with Marco Polo, LOUISE KENT. Thomas Allen (I)
He Went with Vasco da Gama, LOUISE KENT. Thomas Allen (I)
History of the United States, C. P. HILL. Macmillan (III, VI, VII)
Home Life in Colonial Days, A. M. EARLE. Brett-Macmillan (III)

I Have Just Begun to Fight, Edward Ellsberg. Dodd Mead (VI)
I Know a City, K. B. Shippen. Macmillan (III, VI)

Jamestown Adventure, Olga Hall-Quest. Smithers & Bonellie (III)
Janice Meredith, Paul L. Ford. Dodd Mead (VI)
Johnny Tremain, Esther Forbes. Thomas Allen (VI)
Land and People of Canada, Frances A. Ross. Longmans, Green (I-VII)
Last of the Mohicans, J. F. Cooper. Dodd Mead (V)
Leader by Destiny: George Washington, Jeanette Eaton. Longmans, Green (VI)
Little Giant, Olive Knox. Ryerson (VII)
Lone Journey: Roger Williams, Jeanette Eaton. Longmans, Green (III)

Madeleine Takes Command, Ethel C. Brill. McGraw-Hill (V)
Man from St. Malo, Robert D. Ferguson. Macmillan (I)
The Map-Maker, Kerry Wood. Macmillan (VII)
Maria Chapdelaine, Louis Hemon. Macmillan (II)
Master Simon's Garden, Cornelia Meigs. Brett-Macmillan (III)
Minutemen of the Sea, Tom Cluff. Ambassador (VI)

North for Adventure, Richard Lambert. McClelland & Stewart (IV, VII)
The Nor'westers, Marjorie Wilkins Campbell. Macmillan (VII)

Of Courage Undaunted, J. Daugherty. Macmillan (VII)
Our Independence and the Constitution, Dorothy C. Fisher. Random House (VI)

Pageant of Canadian History, A. M. Peck. Longmans, Green (I-VII)
Parkman Reader, ed. Samuel E. Morison. McClelland & Stewart (II-VII)
The Pathfinder, J. F. Cooper. Dodd Mead (V)
Pathfinders of North America, E. and M. Guillet. Macmillan (II, IV, V, VII)
Penn, Elizabeth Gray. Macmillan (III)
Picture Gallery of Canadian History, Vols. 1 and 2, C. W. Jefferys. Ryerson (I-VII)
Picture History of Canada, J. McEwen and K. Moore. Thomas Nelson (I-VII)
Pioneer Arts and Crafts, E. C. Guillet. Ontario Publishing Co. (VI, VII)
Pioneer Settlements, E. C. Guillet. Ontario Publishing Co. (VI, VII)
Pioneer Social Life, E. C. Guillet. Ontario Publishing Co. (VI, VII)
Pioneer Travel, E. C. Guillet. Ontario Publishing Co. (VI, VII)

Pocahontas and Captain John Smith: The Story of the Virginia Colony, MARIE LAWSON. Random House (III)
Puritan Adventure, L. LENSKI. Longmans, Green (III)

Raiders of the Mohawk, ORLO MILLER. Macmillan (VI)
River of the Wolves, STEPHEN MEADER. Longmans, Green (V)

Shadows on the Rock, WILLA CATHER. McClelland & Stewart (II)
Son of the Mohawks, C. A. M. EDWARDS. Ryerson (IV)
Son of Thunder: Patrick Henry, J. M. H. CARSON. Longmans, Green (VI)
Story of Canada, G. BROWN, E. HARMAN and M. JEANNERET. Copp Clark (I-VII)
Story of the Declaration of Independence, DUMAS MALONE. Oxford (VI)
Story of the 'Old Colony' of New Plymouth, SAMUEL E. MORISON. McClelland & Stewart (III)
Story of the United Empire Loyalists, A. TRUEMAN. Copp Clark (VI)

Tales the Totems Tell, HUGH WEATHERBY. Macmillan (I)
Tales and Trails of Western Canada, IRENE CRAIG and NELL MACVICOR. Moyer (VII)
That Country Called Virginia, L. BARKSDALE. McClelland & Stewart (III, VI)
Thomas Jefferson, G. LISITZKY. Macmillan (VI)
Thomas Jefferson, Champion of the People, CLARA JUDSON. Ambassador (VI)
Tonty of the Iron Hand, FRED SWAYZE. Ryerson (IV)
Trailmaker: The Story of Alexander Mackenzie, RICHARD LAMBERT. McClelland & Stewart (VII)

Unusual Facts in Canadian History, WILLIAM L. STYLES. McClelland & Stewart (I-VII)

A Visual History of Canada, GEORGE L. GRAY. British Book Service (I-VII)

We Are the Government, M. ELTING and M. GOSSETT. Doubleday (VI)
The Wedding Gift, THOMAS H. RADDALL. McClelland & Stewart (VI)
Winged Canoes at Nootka, PAMELA STEPHEN. Dent (VII)
The Winter at Valley Forge, VAN WYCK MASON. Random House (VI)
Wolfe Commands You, SHOWELL STYLES. British Book Service (V)

Young Trailers, J. A. ALTSHELER. Saunders (VII)

RYERSON READERS: Ryerson

Pathfinders to America: Jacques Cartier (I)
Maisonneuve; Bishop Laval; Mère Marie de L'Incarnation; Marguerite Bourgeois; Jeanne Mance; Jean de Brébeuf (II)
Père Marquette (IV)
Pierre le Moyne D'Iberville; Madeleine de Verchères; The Acadians; Sieges of Quebec (French Régime) (V)
Brant; John Graves Simcoe (VI)
Hudson Bay to the Blackfoot Country; Alexander Henry and Peter Pond; Sir Alexander Mackenzie; Captain George Vancouver; Old Fort Prince of Wales (VII)

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